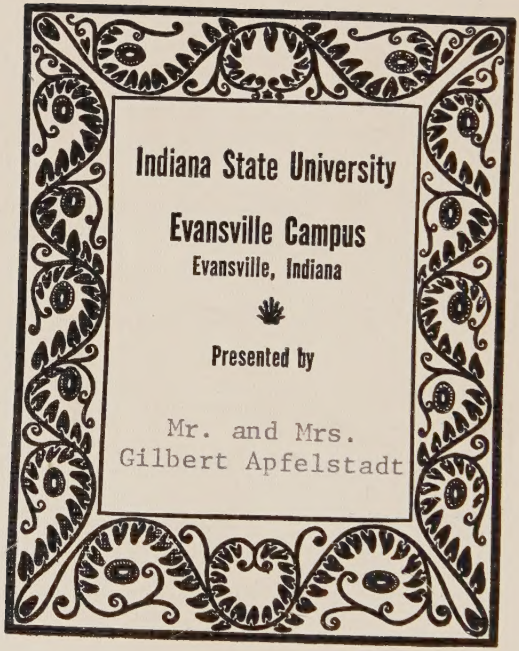
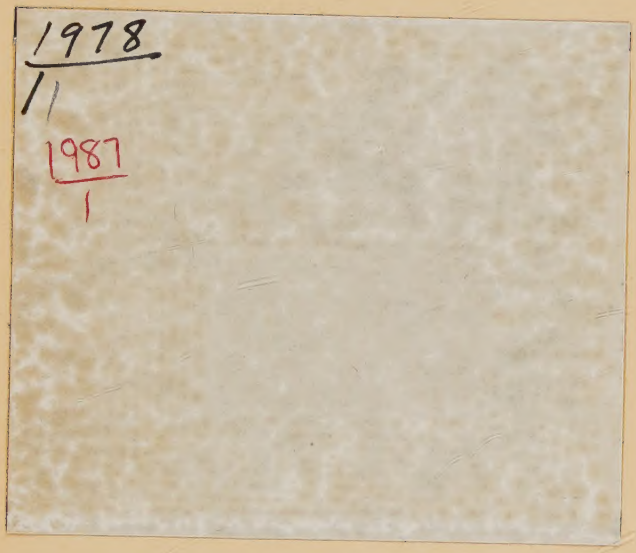
THE FUNDAMENTALS OF

PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION



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The Fundamentals of

PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION



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The Fundamentals of
PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

by WARD G. REEDER, *Professor of Education, Ohio State University*

Revised *and* Enlarged Edition

059864

The Macmillan Company

NEW YORK

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Printed in the United States of America

Published March, 1941
Reprinted May, 1942

First edition copyrighted and published, 1930,
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To

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY

Vigorous student of the history, the philosophy,
and the practice of school administration

PREFACE

This book is a revision of one published in 1930 under the same title. It has the same purpose as the earlier volume. It essays to discuss the urgent and recurring problems found in the administration of a local school system whether the system be rural or urban, small or large. It deals with those problems primarily from the point of view of the officials who have the chief responsibility for administering the schools, namely, the superintendent and the board of education. It is a manual of theory and practice for such officials; it emphasizes *why* and *how*.

The revision has been systematic and complete rather than perfunctory. Approximately fifty per cent more material has been added, and numerous changes in both content and expression have been made in practically every paragraph. All selected references, questions for discussion, and textual data have been brought down to date. Emphasis has been placed upon principles of action and upon the most desirable practice, although current practice has not been neglected. Since all these changes looking toward improvement have been made, oblivion is hopefully awaited for the edition of 1930.

In the selected references which appear at the close of each chapter no attempt has been made to list every reference; rather, the aim has been to include only those which make the largest contribution to the subject matter of the chapter. Even with this aim in mind many excellent references, especially magazine articles, could not be included because of space limits. Through the suggestions given in these references the interested learner will be able to direct his reading over a period of several years.

The book could hardly have been prepared without the generous assistance of many persons, and for that assistance

the author expresses his gratitude. A large number of school officials and employees co-operated by providing information regarding the manner in which they perform various school functions; this list of officials and employees is too long to mention by name. In particular the author is indebted to his students at Ohio State University; they have been the proverbial "dogs" on whom the "poison has been tried" during many years.

WARD G. REEDER

COLUMBUS, OHIO
February, 1941

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PART I

Administrative Personnel and Organization

Chapter I

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN A DEMOCRACY

EDUCATION AS A PUBLIC ENTERPRISE

Importance of education. — To elaborate upon the importance of education would be trite, for the story of the historic faith of the American people in education has often been told and is generally known. Suffice it to say that from the time of the founding of the first settlements in America, education of the proper type and amount has been regarded as the bulwark of a democratic government, as the best guarantee of a progressing society, and as an open sesame to the individual for the realization of his potentialities. With a chaotic world in prospect for many years, a better type of education than ever before becomes necessary if America is to meet her obligations and to help the other nations meet theirs.

Size of education. — Regarding the size of education, it must be described as gigantic. Compared with other public businesses, far more money is spent on education, far more people are employed in it, and far more people are affected, either directly or indirectly, by it. In the typical state, county, parish, city, town, village, township, or rural community, nearly one-half of all the tax money is now expended for schools, and in the United States approximately two billion dollars is now annually used for this purpose.[1]

[1] When the reader desires up-to-date statistics on educational matters, he should consult what someone has called "the schoolman's statistical Bible," namely, the reports of the U.S. Commissioner of Education. Since these data are always somewhat out of date, one may also consult *School Life* published by the U.S. Office of Education.

To conduct this immense business more than one million teachers, janitors, and other employees are required. This huge army of employees has under its tutelage, administration, and supervision more than twenty-six million pupils. Approximately one person in every four of the population now gives his working hours to study, teaching, administration, supervision, or some other phase of schoolwork, and there are few homes which do not have at least one representative regularly in school either as a pupil or as an employee.

Nor has the business of education yet reached its full growth — probably it never will and never should. Millions of capable youth are not yet provided with secondary school and college education, and the surface of adult education has been scarcely scratched. School enrollment has tended to increase,[1] particularly in the secondary schools, colleges, and universities, and school expenditures per pupil have more than kept pace with the enrollment. The increase in school enrollment and in school expenditures in the United States during recent decades constitutes the most significant fact in the history of education, whether of this country or of foreign countries. Although certain phases of it are occasionally criticized, the American school system as a whole has been for many years the marvel and the envy of the entire world. The discerning historian in future ages will record our school system as our largest social experiment and as our greatest contribution to the civilization of these times. To summarize, education already constitutes the

[1] During the most recent years, however, elementary school enrollment has tended to decrease because of the decline in the birth rate. This decrease has begun to show in the junior high school and will soon be seen in the senior high school and the college. The United States is gradually becoming a nation of older people because of the decrease in the birth rate and the increase in the life span.

The decrease in the elementary school and the junior high school may and should be offset in the senior high school and junior college by a longer retention of pupils in the upper years. Eventually all or nearly all pupils who enter our public schools should complete at least fourteen years and either be prepared to enter a vocation or continue preparation toward one of the professions.

largest and the most important business of the American people, and what is of even greater significance, the faith in its efficacy — always strong — continues to grow. When that faith has lagged, it has usually been due to ignorant or careless school officials and employees who failed to keep the schools in pace with social needs.

FUNCTION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Necessity for administration. — The important, gigantic, and complex business which has just been described cannot run itself. Every business, whether public or private, must be properly administered if it is to pay dividends in money or in service. Stockholders of industrial concerns have historically been aware of the need for proper administration of such concerns, and for almost as long the public has been cognizant of the necessity for — though unfortunately not so insistent upon — proper administration of its institutions. Although the people are the stockholders of the school enterprise, both they and school officials frequently forget the fact and permit waste and other inefficiency to become rampant. Wherever civic slackers predominate, good schools are not found.

There are hundreds of details incident to the running of an efficient school or a school system for which someone must be responsible. Plans must be made and policies adopted; the plans and policies must be properly executed; and information must be collected which will show how efficiently the plans and policies are operating, and which will also become the basis for new and better plans and policies. This is a general statement of the function of school administration.

Typical administrative problems. — A more detailed list of the things which school administration does, or should do, is the following: makes the school budget and secures the revenue for financing the schools; sees that all school money is economically expended and accounted for; selects and purchases school sites; plans, erects, and pays for school

buildings and equips them; sees that the school plant is operated and kept in an excellent state of repair; selects, trains in service, supervises and inspects the services of, maintains the *esprit de corps* of, pays, and promotes teachers and all other employees; provides pupils and employees with supplies; furnishes textbooks; arranges for school-library service; assists in curriculum construction; provides health supervision and medical inspection; supervises extracurricular activities; takes, organizes, and makes proper use of the school census; sees that the pupils attend school regularly; organizes an instructional program which will enable each pupil to progress at his own rate; measures and evaluates the accomplishments and efficiency of pupils, employees, and materials; provides pupil guidance; keeps the public informed of the aims, accomplishments, and needs of the schools; keeps school records and accounts; in brief, affords leadership to the whole school organization.

Of course, no list of the functions of school administration can be complete, nor are the duties of one school administrator exactly like those of another. Every year, every week, every day, the typical school administrator will have certain duties to perform which he may never have to perform again although his professional career may be long and varied. Most of the duties listed in the preceding paragraph are of a recurring and fundamental type and will be faced in all school-administrative positions alike. It is to those duties of a recurring and more fundamental type that this book is devoted. It is to their efficient performance that the well-prepared and ethical school administrator swears allegiance.

School administration as a means. — School administration does not exist for itself; it is only a means, not an end. Schools are maintained only for providing the means of education. School administration which facilitates education, and does so without financial waste, is justifiable and worth spending money upon. School administration which does not facilitate education is a parasite and a debauchery

of public funds. School administration, therefore, exists only for the pupil, and its efficacy must be measured by the extent to which it contributes to teaching and learning; to teaching and learning it must always be a servant. It makes its largest contributions by providing efficient teachers and by furnishing them and their pupils with the proper tools and environment with which and in which to work. It must be dynamic, never static.

If the criticism of being trite were not feared, and if the space limits set for this book would permit it, hundreds of ways would be related in which *efficient* school administration contributes to learning and teaching and by which it assures that financial waste will not result. Likewise would be related ways in which *inefficient* school administration results in the pupils being cheated of much of their educational patrimony and through which it permits financial waste to continue. Obviously both efficient and inefficient school administration is represented in the thousands of American school systems, and no school system is administered wholly efficiently or wholly inefficiently.

Persons are sometimes heard to suggest that all school administration be abolished on the ground that it is parasitic. The persons who make this suggestion may usually be divided into three classes: first, those who are uninformed on the size, the complexity, the aims, and the history of education; second, those who are informed, but are entirely unsympathetic or lukewarm toward public education; third, those who generalize on the basis of one, or a few, experiences—who, seeing inefficient school administration in *their* community, and having no acquaintance with school administration in other communities, conclude that the sad plight of their community is typical.

It would, of course, be possible to act upon the suggestion of the critics aforementioned and to dispense with the services of school boards, superintendents, business officials, principals, and other administrative employees. The elimination of

such employees, however, would drag the schools back almost three centuries to the time when the people attempted to administer their schools without having a special administrative machinery and personnel; to take this step would result in the "blind leading the blind" and permit waste and inefficiency to become widespread. One of the major needs in American education is still that of more and better qualified administrators. How the schools came to have an administrative machinery and personnel is sketched in the next section of the chapter.

EVOLUTION OF AN ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL

Early democratic control. — That the present prevalence of an administrative machinery and an administrative personnel for the schools is not fortuitous and ill-advised, but is the product of a gradual evolution — an evolution which parallels, and is a part of, the evolution of our school system — may be seen from a backward glance at education in the United States. In the early days, when society was much less complex and when the needs for education were not so great as today, education was a much smaller public undertaking. In the pristine days of education there were no school employees except the teachers; school board members and administrative employees were not deemed necessary — in fact, were not thought of. In those days the schools were administered directly by the people who met regularly in town[1] meetings and decided all questions *viva voce*. In these meetings decisions were made to erect and repair school buildings, school supplies and equipment were arranged for, the subjects which should be taught were determined, and teachers were selected and their compensations fixed. In fact, all questions of school policy and control were thus decided. Here was pure democracy in operation, and as the schools were administered so were all other public businesses

[1] A *town* usually included a small village and the surrounding rural territory. It was, and is, typically a New England governmental unit. It is generally similar to the township of other sections of the United States.

of a local character. Representative government was found only in state and national affairs.

The establishment of school boards. — The completely democratic control of local government above described did not, however, long exist. As the size of the educational enterprise increased and as its technical nature came more and more to be seen, the people deemed it more expedient, from the standpoint both of saving their time and of securing a more rational handling of the problems of school policy and control, to delegate certain school functions to the selectmen [1] of the town. To be exact, completely democratic control of the schools existed only from 1635, the date of the establishment in Massachusetts of the first schools which were truly public, to 1654, when the Massachusetts Colony enacted a state-wide law which commended "the selectmen in the seuerall townes, not to admitt or suffer any such to be contynued in the office or the place of teaching, educating or instructing of youth or child, in the colledge or shooles, that haue manifested ym selves vnsoond in the faythe, or scandelous in theire liues, not giueing due satisfaction according to the rules of Christ."

First upon the initiative of the people of the towns and later according to the mandates of the legislatures, the selectmen were gradually delegated more numerous and more important school functions, and frequently the towns, upon their own initiative, elected special school committees for the performance of certain tasks. It was not until 1826, however, that the first state (Massachusetts) enacted a law requiring every town in the state to select a separate school committee and prescribed as its only function the direction and control of the schools of the town. To these school committees or boards, however, which today are ubiquitous in every state and have large power, the people were slow in delegating

[1] The *selectmen* may be regarded as the prototype of the town or city council of today; to them the people of the community delegated certain functions of government.

authority. The large power which school boards now have has come to them in slow evolution. In fact, the people have always been reluctant to delegate powers to their representatives.

The establishment of the superintendency. — The first large step, then, in creating a school machinery was taken when separate school committees or boards were established to perform certain administrative functions. The next large step was taken when it was realized that the business of education was so great, complex, and important that special employees were needed to assist boards of education with its administration; this realization came especially when ward school districts were consolidated into city districts and when small rural districts were merged. Thus, superintendents of schools came into being, the first city superintendency being established by Providence, Rhode Island, in 1836 and the first county superintendency coming about the same time. New York had provided for the first state superintendency in 1812. To the newly established superintendency, however, boards of education were slow in delegating functions, largely because of the lack of professional status of the office. Soon, though, the office proved its worth and secured professional status, and during recent decades it has been established in every community and large functions have been delegated to it. Thus, today the school system of every state, county, parish, city, town, and village has a superintendent, and in the larger school systems there are many subordinate administrative officers, such as assistant superintendents, business employees, and principals. School administration has proved its worth over more than a century of evolution. It has accomplished much, but its greatest contributions will be made in the future.

AUTOCRACY VERSUS DEMOCRACY IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Just as there are two types of government, of labor-capital relationship, of home relationship, and of other ways of life

in the world today, so there are two types of school administration. These are: first, the *autocratic* type; second, the *democratic* type. Of course, there are various combinations and degrees of these two types and the two poles are seldom, if ever, found in practice. Each school administrator must decide for himself which type of administration he will practice.

Autocratic school administration. — In the autocratic type of administration the school official serves as a sort of dictator over his department, school, or school system. He does not confer with his co-workers on the making or the execution of policies. If he holds a meeting of the school employees, its purpose is to give orders, not to talk things over. He is the "supreme lawgiver" who makes all decisions and promulgates them. He assumes that his function is only to lead and command and that the duty of all co-workers is to follow and obey; it is "not theirs to reason why," but only "theirs to do and die." He interprets any disagreement with his views as the result of ignorance or as proof of insubordination. He talks of *my* department, *my* school, *my* principals, and *my* teachers as if they were his chattels. His acts imply that he believes that in his realm he is "king," and that the "king can do no wrong." This type of administration was almost universal in the early days, and it still obtains in hundreds of schools and school systems. It is often evidenced in the relationships between the superintendent and the principals, between the principal and the teachers, between the head of the department and the teachers, and between the teacher and the pupils.

Democratic school administration. — In the democratic type of administration the school official conceives his duty to be to serve as a leader among his co-workers, not as their dictator. He desires to be known as a brother to his employees rather than as their "boss." He stimulates the group to work co-operatively for the achievement of common purposes; and this ability to work together is the essence of

democracy whether it be in government, in school affairs, in home relationship, or elsewhere. He craves suggestions, and even invites adverse criticism of present or proposed practice; moreover, he organizes his department, school, or school system in such a manner that these suggestions and criticisms may be systematically and regularly secured. He holds frequent meetings of his co-workers to discuss school problems. This type of administration is coming more and more to be adopted.

This book urges upon all school officials and employees the adoption of the democratic type of administration. This type is urged because it is consistent with the democratic philosophy of life which America has adopted, whereas the autocratic type is inconsistent with that philosophy. If democracy is to be made to function to the fullest, it must be practiced at every opportunity, and especially in our public institutions. Since the fundamental aim of the school is to prepare its members for democratic living, the school should exemplify that way of life. The school should provide a type of organization and administration wherein officials, employees, pupils, and the general public may co-operate in determining purposes and the procedures for accomplishing those purposes. No institution has a greater opportunity than the school to make democracy conscious of itself. The school cannot be "the cradle of democracy" if this cradle is rocked by school officials and employees who are autocrats.

In addition to being consistent with America's philosophy of life, the use of democracy in school administration will secure better schools. It will contribute to the securing of better schools in two ways. In the first place, it will make the members of the personnel more co-operative and give them *esprit de corps*, because most employees desire to have a part in the planning of policies and procedures. The exchange of views which comes from democratic school administration is sure to be stimulating to every employee. Democratic administration provides all employees with an opportunity to

develop themselves, because it gives them an opportunity to think. In autocratic administration, on the contrary, a stricture is placed upon intellectual growth because employees have little opportunity to think; they are merely cogs in a machine.

In the second place, democracy will be helpful to the school official because it will bring to him many worth-while suggestions from his co-workers. These suggestions will often prevent the school official from making mistakes which would harm the schools and injure his prestige. The most competent superintendent, principal, or other administrator is sure to be able to secure helpful suggestions from his co-workers, and it is his opportunity and his duty — as Woodrow Wilson once said — to "pick the brains" of these co-workers.

Although it is the ideal to be nurtured, the tree of democracy has vexatious thorns as well as abundant fruit. The school administrator must be conscious of these thorns and do everything possible to eliminate them. Probably the most frequent and irritating of the thorns is the lack of broad training and wide perspective on the part of many of the persons who co-operate. Many persons see only one side of a question. And, by a strange irony, those persons who know least often pretend to know most. Democracy cannot be expected to work among ignorant participants; as Carlyle has well said, "The multiplication of ignorance does not lead to intelligence." If teachers and other employees are to co-operate intelligently with school officials, they must "emerge from their groove" and learn something of the problems of administration as well as the problems of the classroom. Likewise, if administrators are to co-operate intelligently with teachers and other employees, they must know something of the problems of these employees. Although most of this information will have to be secured in the crucible of experience, a beginning toward securing it should be made in the colleges and universities when these officials and employees are securing their pre-service preparation.

Another thorn of the tree of democracy is selfishness on the part of many persons who co-operate. Selfishness often makes a mockery of democracy. Many persons get all they can and give no more than they must; they have never learned to share and to keep in mind the welfare of all the people; they crave freedom, but disdain responsibility. If certain practices, such as the amount of salary, the number of school holidays, and the length of the school day were determined by school employees alone, selfishness might become dominant and the interests of pupils and the public suffer. If democracy is ever to function to the fullest, it must be guided by altruism rather than selfishness. The road of democracy cannot be traveled without personal sacrifice and service to society.

Of course, too much time could be consumed in the discussion of policies and procedures, and efficient democracy will avoid becoming a mere debating society which makes no decisions and accomplishes nothing. Only a functioning democracy is worthy of the name. Manifestly, there are thousands of policies and procedures in school administration, and it would be humanly impossible to discuss all of them co-operatively. Only the larger problems can be thus handled. Most of the details of administration must be delegated to superintendents, principals, and other administrators, or to committees of teachers, janitors, bus drivers, and other employees, and they must be trusted to use their best judgment in handling the details. When the spirit of democracy is present, the practice of democracy is likely to keep pace.

When intelligent and unselfish school officials and employees meet around the council table to discuss policies and procedures, they will usually agree upon a program which all can support. If disagreement is too frequent and too violent, democracy is not likely to be present. It is apparent, though, that when people engage in thinking they are likely to have honest disagreements; these disagreements happen because

people interpret the truth in different ways. For example, the superintendent and the principal will not always be able to agree upon the best candidate for a teaching position or upon the salary to be paid for the position. Likewise, superintendents and principals will not always agree with teachers and other employees on desirable policies and procedures. What policy, therefore, should the administrator pursue when there is disagreement between him and his co-workers? Should he insist that his view prevail or should he present his view as well as the other views and permit the superintendent, the board of education, or his other administrative superiors, to decide?

On most matters, all conflicting views should be presented, together with the arguments for them. The principal should follow this procedure in presenting matters to the superintendent and the superintendent should follow it in presenting matters to the board of education. Any school administrator who constantly finds himself in disagreement with his co-workers, and constantly insists upon the acceptance of his view, automatically indicts himself for violation of that famous rule — "Don't take yourself too seriously."

After decisions have been made, how shall the majority treat the minority and how shall the minority deal with the majority? The spirit of the golden rule should prevail. The minority should co-operate in giving the decision of the majority a fair and adequate trial. The majority should respect the minority and not ride roughshod over it or try to "liquidate" it; one of the best tests of democracy is the kind of treatment given to minority groups. Progress is more often started by minorities than by majorities, and most majority groups were in their beginning nurtured by minority groups — often by a minority of only one person. Without the educational pioneering of minority groups there would not be a profession of school administration today; indeed, there would not be a public school system. Efficient democracy will always provide for experimentation,

for free expression of opinion, and for variations from any practice or fashion.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What would be the educational, civic, moral, and economic effect on a community which might choose to abolish its schools? What would be the effect on the individual?

2. Is education more necessary today than formerly? Why or why not?

3. Is education more important in a democracy than it is in a totalitarian government? Explain.

4. What possible explanations are there of the fact that no local school system in America employed a superintendent until 1836, which was slightly more than 200 years after the establishment of our first public schools?

5. What are some ways in which an efficient superintendent of schools can save his salary in the administration of a school system? What are some ways in which he can facilitate the giving of instruction?

6. What percentage of the school budget of your state or local school system is expended for administration? Do you regard that percentage as too large? Why? Would you recommend that a larger percentage be spent for administration? Justify your point of view.

7. How would you reply to the occasional critic who charges that "entirely too much money is being expended for administration"?

8. Could it be arranged for teachers to administer the schools without the aid of administrators especially employed for that purpose? Why or why not?

9. What explanation is there for the fact that in many school systems in the early days a business manager was employed before a superintendent?

10. Do you believe that the schools are as efficiently administered as other public businesses or as private businesses are administered? Account for any difference in efficiency which you may mention.

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Chapter II

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AS A PROFESSION

OPPORTUNITIES IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

School administration is a relatively youthful profession, it being slightly more than one hundred years old. Compared with the professions of law, medicine, the ministry, architecture, engineering, and others, it is extremely young. When its short life is considered, it must be admitted that its development has been phenomenal; today it compares favorably with the other learned professions in its entrance requirements, in its opportunities for service, and in its pecuniary, social, and other rewards. Its chief opportunities are briefly discussed herewith.

Large number of administrative positions. — Although statistics showing the exact number of school-administrative positions in the United States are not available, casual observation and examination of school directories make clear that there are many types of such positions, and in most of these types there are thousands of positions. For the person who is well qualified there is usually a school-administrative position available. Competition, though, becomes keener every year. The following are the chief types of such positions: state, city, county, town, and village superintendencies; assistant superintendencies of several kinds; school-business positions of various kinds; school principalships and assistant principalships; and directors or heads of various departments, bureaus, and divisions. Contrary to earlier practices, these positions are being awarded more and more on the basis of

qualifications, and the field of selection is usually the whole United States. In only the state and county superintendencies do archaic conditions, such as popular election, local residence, and "political" considerations, still attach to the school-administrative positions, and even in those the tendency is away from such handicaps. The line of promotion in most administrative positions is from the less responsible to the more responsible, and as in all endeavors, there is "plenty of room at the top." To climb to the top requires, however, many years of hard work; it also requires innumerable personal qualifications. School administration is not a career for a weakling.

Pecuniary rewards. — The administrative positions pay by far the largest salaries in the teaching profession. In the typical city an elementary school principal receives approximately one thousand dollars more than an elementary school teacher, and a high school principal receives about one thousand dollars more than the usual high school teacher. In the rural school systems the disparity between the salary of the teacher and that of the administrator is not quite so large as in the city systems. In the rural schools, also, the salaries are not nearly so large as in the city schools. The larger the school or school system the higher the salary paid to the various types of employees.

Of course, the maximum salaries of school administrators are not so high as the maximum salaries of administrators in many private businesses. So far as information goes, the highest salary which any school administrator in the United States now receives is $25,000 annually, and the number who receive more than $15,000 annually can be counted on the fingers of one hand. In private business, on the contrary, salaries as high as $100,000 annually are occasionally paid, and salaries of $25,000 are frequent. Usually, though, the superintendent of schools is the highest paid *public* employee in the community and his salary usually compares favorably with that of any employee of any private business in the

community; this is particularly true of the smaller school systems. Moreover, his salary is assured during the length of his contract, whereas the salaries of employees in private businesses are frequently not assured from one day, week, or month to the next.

In addition to his regular salary the school administrator has the opportunity, provided he has the special ability, the time, and the inclination, to supplement his income through such means as lecturing and writing. A few school administrators are able to earn several hundred, or several thousand, dollars annually through lecturing or through the preparation of pedagogical treatises or pupils' textbooks. In fairness, though, it should be said that these opportunities come only to the exceptional and more fortunate administrators. Moreover, it should be pointed out that some administrators perform such extra work to the harm of their health or at the expense of the school system.

Opportunities for service. — From the lecture platform and the pulpit, in teachers' institutes, teacher-preparing institutions, newspapers, magazines, and books, teachers have been told again and again of their "matchless opportunities for service." Frequently they have been requested, either explicitly or implicitly, to regard their opportunities for service and the pleasures of their calling as a substitute for a living wage.

Teachers unquestionably do have a large opportunity for service — probably the largest opportunity of any group of workers — but, since they already well know the fact, it need not be constantly repeated to them. Would not it be a good policy to try to impress the fact more upon the mind of the general public, and to "play a new record" for teachers! It has been long observed that a too-frequent playing of the same "roll or record" is likely to irritate even the most patient and interested listener.

It is desirable, however, to violate our suggestion long enough to say that the school administrator has an even

greater opportunity for service than the classroom teacher. Whereas the teacher's influence is limited largely to his tutelage and example in the classroom, the school administrator's influence extends over the whole community; by his leadership the school administrator can improve the intellectual, moral, social, civic, and economic status of the whole community. Think of the wide opportunity to mold human lives which the superintendent of schools of a state, county, city, town, or village possesses! Think also of the opportunity of the principal or of other administrative subordinates in their more limited areas! In this regard certainly no other calling can be compared with the profession of school administration.

It is hoped that school employees will always receive, and insist upon receiving, salaries commensurate with their qualifications and the importance of their work; however, it is as dearly hoped that they will never select their calling and remain in it primarily because of the pecuniary rewards. It is hoped that they will always possess the urge of the true artist and do the thing which they love to do even though the pecuniary rewards may be small. Someone has well said: "The artist and the saint do what they *love* to do — not to make a living, but in obedience to some mysterious necessity. They do not produce to live; they live to produce."

Assurance of tenure. — Although there have been many instances of unceremonious "firing" of efficient school administrators, particularly of superintendents, and although there will probably always be a few such unfortunate happenings, the belief that school employees should be retained as long as their services are satisfactory is coming more and more to be accepted by boards of education and the general public. An assured and a longer tenure is recommended because it will provide a better type of service for the community and will cause a better quality of personnel to enter the profession and to desire to remain in it. Uncertain and brief tenure

retards the development of the profession and, what is more to be deplored, handicaps the schools.

Compared with the employees of most private businesses, school employees have the advantage of a contract which always extends for one year, and in the case of school administrators contracts frequently extend for two, three, four, or five years. The tenures and salaries of school employees are thus legally protected during the term of the contract. Employees of private businesses, on the other hand, are not so well protected by contracts; in fact, in most instances their salaries and tenures may be terminated at any time and for any cause.

REQUIREMENTS FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Professional preparation. — The tendency everywhere is toward requiring at least three years of teaching experience plus at least one year of graduate work, with emphasis on school administration, for all types of positions in school administration. Several states already have such a certification requirement for school administrators, and in states which do not have it competition for positions has driven almost all administrators to have the equivalent of the requirement. Every state should have a certification requirement for all types of administrative positions, and the standards just mentioned should be the minimum of respectability for granting such certificates. The Committee on Certification of Superintendents of Schools has recommended that the minimum legislative requirements for persons entering the school superintendency be not less than the following: [1]

1. Twenty-five years of age.
2. United States citizenship.
3. Evidence of sound physical and mental health based upon the written statement of an approved physician.
4. Four years of both professional and cultural studies in a standard and

[1] *The Superintendent of Schools and His Work*, p. 47. Copyright by the American Association of School Administrators.

accredited college plus a minimum of one year of graduate study terminating in the master's degree.

5. Three years of successful experience in classroom, administrative or supervisory positions in public school systems.

The above recommendations should not be regarded as too high. If they are to be criticized, it should be on the basis that they are too low, especially regarding the amount of college and university preparation. When the importance and the difficulty of the work of school superintendent are considered, it can be justly urged that he have a minimum of three years of graduate study terminating in a degree such as the Ph.D. or the Ed.D. These requirements should be imposed at once for new appointees to the larger superintendencies, and they should be imposed eventually upon all types of superintendencies. Both graduate and undergraduate programs should keep in mind cultural as well as professional studies. The superintendent should be well grounded in such areas as public finance, sociology, economics, and political science. He needs also a well-rounded preparation in child psychology and hygiene and in the whole field of professional education; he especially needs preparation in school administration.[1] It would be a great boon to education and to society if school administrators would take the lead in standardizing their profession along the lines just recommended; physicians and lawyers have done as much for their professions, and school administrators have the same opportunity in theirs. The entrance to all types of school service has been entirely too easy for the welfare of society; the door should be closed to the unworthy.

Importance of good leadership. — The person who directs an organization or a department makes it largely what it is. If the administrator is not well qualified, his organization or department will never realize its potentialities even though

[1] Beginning administrators usually must teach part time, and should therefore not neglect preparation for their teaching duties as well as that for their administrative duties.

all other conditions for such realization are favorable. A well-qualified administrator, on the other hand, will overcome all obstacles and will make his organization or department function to the highest degree of efficiency. Enlightened leadership is a desideratum for every institution, organization, or department, and personnel is always more important than forms of organization, buildings, machinery, and materials. Leadership may be defined as a trait which gets things done in the proper way and at the proper time; the ingredients of the trait will be discussed in the next section of this chapter. Of course, the world has always had vicious as well as virtuous leaders.

That an institution is but the lengthened shadow of an individual has been often said. The high points in the educational history of the nation, of states, of counties, of cities, of villages, and of individual schools are intertwined with the activities of the educational leaders of those times. The great movements in education — movements which give luster to the pages of educational history — owe their inception and their consummation largely to the vision and the labor of great leaders. Witness what Horace Mann did for education in Massachusetts; Henry Barnard, first in Connecticut and later in Rhode Island; John D. Pierce, in Michigan; Caleb Mills, in Indiana; Calvin E. Stowe, in Ohio; Andrew S. Draper, in New York; William T. Harris, first in St. Louis and later in the United States Bureau of Education; William H. Maxwell, in New York City; J. M. Greenwood, in Kansas City; Lee Driver, in Randolph County, Indiana; William R. Harper, in the University of Chicago; G. Stanley Hall, in Clark University; Booker T. Washington, in Tuskegee Institute; Charles W. Eliot, in Harvard University. These are but a few of the great leaders who have left their indelible impress upon the schools or school systems which they directed.

"As is priest, so is parish" is an ancient Russian proverb. This proverb may be paraphrased and applied to school

employees. It may be applied to the teacher, the principal, the superintendent, or any person in charge of a school service, division, bureau, or department. As is its head, so is a department; as is the principal, so is the school; and as is the superintendent, so is the school system. A splendid department, school, or school system has often been almost wrecked by inefficient leadership, and conversely, a derelict department, school, or school system has often been immeasurably and immediately improved by efficient leadership. The foremost function, therefore, of a school administrator, whether he be head of a department, a principal, a superintendent, or what not, is to furnish leadership to his department, school, or school system. Democracy always needs such leadership in all its endeavors.

Qualities of leadership. — In any endeavor, leadership demands a concept of the goals to be reached, knowledge of the best procedures to be used, and courage and energy to push forward. Incompetents and weaklings never become leaders; they seldom start, and they never finish. Regarding the qualities of leadership which the school administrator should have we can do no better than to quote from a writing of E. P. Cubberley.[1] The qualities mentioned by Cubberley apply particularly to the superintendent of schools.

> He [the superintendent of schools] must learn to lead by reason of his larger knowledge and his contagious enthusiasm, rather than to drive by reason of his superior power. The powers and prerogatives which are guaranteed to him by law he must know how to use wisely, and he should be able to win new powers and prerogatives from the board largely by reason of his ability to use them well. He must constantly remember that he represents the whole community and not any part or fraction of it, and he must deal equal justice to all. As the representative of the whole community he will be wise not to ally himself at all closely with any faction, or division, or party in it.
>
> He must, out of his larger knowledge, see clearly what are the attainable goals of the school system, and how best and how fast to attempt to reach

[1] *Public School Administration*, pp. 138–139. Copyright by Houghton Mifflin Company.

them. From his larger knowledge, too, he must frequently reach up out of the routine of school supervision and executive duties into the higher levels of educational statesmanship. As a statesman, too, he must know how to take advantage of time and opportunity to carry his educational policy into effect.

By conferences, public and private, with leading citizens; by talks to parents at meetings at the schools; by taking the leaders among the teachers into his confidence, by dealing frankly and honestly with the press and the public; by his own written and spoken word, especially in his annual printed reports, and by inciting others to write and speak; and by tact and diplomacy mold such a public opinion that the recommendations which he makes will go by without serious opposition, and be readily accepted by the people of the community. He must remember, though, that Rome was not built in a single day; that it takes a long period of education to accomplish any really fundamental reform; and that it is usually not necessary to rush important matters to an immediate consideration.

In its investigation the Committee on Certification of Superintendents of Schools — a committee appointed by the American Association of School Administrators — found the following to be necessary qualifications for educational leadership: [1]

1. Ability to stimulate and encourage growth among members of the teaching staff.
2. Ability to organize members of the teaching staff so there is freedom for and encouragement to creative contributions to instructional improvement.
3. Ability to keep employees working as individuals and at the same time as a group with common objectives and a common goal.
4. Ability to direct the implementation of those services and policies which are recognized as sound and practicable.

Still another quality of leadership is particularly important in a democracy. That quality is a *pleasing personality*, which may be defined as that something which attracts people to us and gives them confidence in us. The Spanish call this quality the *don de gentes* — meaning the gift of the people. Possessing

[1] *The Superintendent of Schools and His Work*, p. 19. Copyright by the American Association of School Administrators.

the confidence of the people, the accomplishments of the school administrator are more assured; not possessing it, he must largely fail. We are not pretending to write here the complete formula for success, but if we were attempting to write it, one important factor in it would be a pleasing personality. Indeed, the development of a pleasing personality is so important for success in a democracy that it should be regarded as one of the fundamental aims of education.

What are the characteristics of a pleasing personality, and how may such a personality be developed? For an answer to this question we shall call upon W. W. Charters, who has made extensive studies of personality traits among various groups of workers. To have a pleasing personality, according to Charters, a person should be *able to listen well*, be *open-minded*, be *friendly*, be *forceful of speech and action*, and be *courteous*. Under each of these five rubrics he gives suggestions for developing each rubric. These suggestions are implied in the following questions which the reader may use in rating his own personality: [1]

ABILITY TO LISTEN WELL

1. When you talk with a person, do you try to absorb what he is saying, or are you eagerly waiting till he has finished so that you can say what is on your mind?
2. Do you ever sit relaxed, and encourage a friend to talk by asking him intelligent questions, and actually get fun out of the experience? When a pause comes in the conversation, have you ever found out that it is better to ask a good question than to start to give your own ideas?
3. When you meet strangers, do you like to discover their interests by asking them questions, or is your plan of entertainment to tell them all about yourself?
4. Do you consciously try to talk to people about what will interest them or do you talk about the same thing to everybody?
5. Do you really enjoy the pastime of finding out what other people are like, or are you really at heart indifferent about them?
6. When you are in an argument, do you defend your own ideas through

[1] From six addresses broadcast by Professor Charters from Station KDKA (Pittsburgh).

thick and thin, or are you quick to see where your opponent has a good point in his argument and accordingly modify yours?

OPEN–MINDEDNESS

1. Do you ever change your mind when you get into an argument?
2. Do the people who know you think that you are set and obstinate?
3. Another good way to test yourself is to ask yourself the question, "On how many important matters have I changed my attitude during the last five years?"
4. When a man differs from you, do you think he is wrong or do you think that perhaps there may be something in his position?
5. In family conferences, or business conferences, do you lay down the law and fight for it, or do you approach the conference table with the desire to get everybody's side of the question before you come to a decision?

FRIENDLINESS

1. Do you like people or are you critical?
2. Do you praise people not only honestly but generously?
3. How well do you stick with your friends?
4. When you go about among people during the day, do you have the feeling, "Let them take care of themselves while I look out for myself"? Or do you like to do things for them?
5. Do you entertain people or call on them because you like to, or because of a sense of duty?

FORCEFULNESS OF SPEECH AND ACTION

1. Do you have positive convictions or are you neutral on most matters?
2. Do you try to talk entertainingly?
3. Do your acquaintances naturally come to you for advice or do they ignore you?
4. Do you carry your share of the load of the conversation or do you sit back dead and let the others do the talking?
5. Have you a small vocabulary which you work to the limit or do you try for variety in your conversation?

COURTESY

1. Do you know and practice the manners of courteous people?
2. Are you thoughtful of the feelings of others?
3. When you have guests, do you consciously extend yourself to make them happy?
4. On the other hand, how much do you as a guest try to make your host and hostess enjoy your visit?
5. Are you as courteous to your family as you are to strangers?

A school administrator may, however, have a personality that is pleasing to most of his constituents, yet it may reflect a poor quality of veneer, which would become immediately evident to anyone who had the acumen and the desire to scratch under the surface; "even a skunk has beautiful fur." A school administrator with such a veneer would be a "politician" rather than a statesman; with his "political" manipulations he might be able to keep himself in office for many years, but his school system would chiefly mark time. The school administrator needs a personality that will be pleasing to the most critical and intelligent people. He must do more than merely keep the good will of people — he must get the right things accomplished at the proper time and in the correct way. To realize this objective he must be more than a "good fellow," a "gladhander," or a "backslapper"; he must be more than a "Babbitt." He must be a student of community and individual needs and be able to organize means and procedures for meeting those needs. He must worship the god of what ought to be as well as the god of what is. His pleasing personality is of value to the school system only in so far as it enables him to accomplish desirable things for the system. Great educational leaders have always been noted as educational reformers.

Study of great leaders. — It would be eminently worth while for the neophyte school administrator to study the lives of great leaders to try to ascertain the qualities that made them great. A few of the eminent school administrators were mentioned in a preceding paragraph of this chapter; unfortunately, though, for the convenience of the reader, the lives of only a few of the school administrators have been presented in biographical form. Such study, though, need not be limited to *dead* leaders; to study *live* leaders is probably even more helpful and interesting. Moreover, the study need not be limited to the lives of school administrators. It may be supplemented by a study of the lives of great leaders in other fields, and there is a long list of such biographies; for

example, there are excellent biographies of Abraham Lincoln, George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, Woodrow Wilson, Theodore Roosevelt, John Marshall, Thomas Jefferson, Napoleon, Bismarck, Gladstone, Galileo, and Pasteur. The greatest leader of all time was, of course, Jesus of Nazareth and study of him should never cease.

"Politics" and expediency in school administration. — It is always more ethical and more advantageous to the school system to have every policy and procedure decided on the basis of the merits of the case rather than on the basis of chicanery, hypocrisy, bulldozing, or other questionable means. Moreover, the personal fortunes of the school administrator are more likely to be advanced if he fights the battle of the schools entirely on an ethical plane. It is eminently worth while for the school official to acquire a reputation for honesty and fairness; no other type of official can go far.

There are, of course, some administrators who do not agree with the point of view just expressed. They believe that the "end justifies the means," and they do not hesitate to use unethical means, if by so doing they can accomplish what they want; moreover, some of them constantly play politics and always decide issues on the basis of expediency rather than on the basis of what is right and just. They will not fight a thing through on the basis of the merits of the case. They have the same point of view possessed by some of the emperors of ancient times and the dictators of modern times; namely, that "might makes right." The good members should try to dispense with the services of these "fifth columnists" of the profession.

SELECTION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Selection of the superintendent. — More than any other person, the superintendent determines whether the school system will be efficient or inefficient. No task, therefore, which a board of education is called upon to perform is as important as the selection of the superintendent; no task

requires greater perspicacity and devotion to duty. A mistake made in the selection will often bring near disaster to the schools and untold grief to the board of education, whereas a happy selection will mean large progress for the schools and a blissful tenure for the school board members.

The first step which a board of education should take in the selection of a superintendent is to decide upon the qualifications desired and the salary which can be paid. Of course, it will not always be possible to secure a person with the exact qualifications specified, nor will the salary originally agreed upon always fit the most available candidate; adjustments in certain qualifications and in the salary originally decided upon will occasionally have to be made.

The qualifications agreed upon will, of course, be determined by the size and type of community and by the salary which can be paid. "Main Street," "Winesburg," and "Middletown" would hardly expect to be able to secure as high-calibered a superintendent as New York, Chicago, or Philadelphia, nor would they be able to pay as large a salary. However, whether the school system be urban or rural, whether it be large or small, the general qualifications which the superintendent should possess are very similar. The following is a list of qualifications which the board of education of one of our large and progressive school systems adopted for its guidance in its recent search for a superintendent. The superintendent of the small school system should possess the same qualifications, though in less degree. The statement follows:

> *Personal.* — A dominating personality — a leader of men. A man of good moral character and religious belief. A good public speaker. A man of strong constitution and good health, industrious, persevering, courageous, and with a high sense of personal honor; with a good sense of humor, clean in person and in mind; temperate in act and speech, knowing when to speak and when to keep silent; honest and square, tactful and diplomatic. A man of forty to fifty years of age. A man who is animated by ideals of service and who is kindly and sympathetic toward his assistants. A man who, when the needs of the schools demand it, knows how to fight, and to fight hard.

Professional. — A graduate of a reputable college. A graduate student of school administration or a professor of school administration in one of the leading graduate schools of education. An important contributor to publications of scientific societies or to educational periodicals upon contemporary problems of consequence to the administration of city schools. A man who is recognized among superintendents of city schools as one of the ablest and most successful of their group.

Experience. — A man who in his earlier years was a teacher and a principal of an elementary school, who later became a superintendent in a small city which employed only one executive officer, and who now holds, or has within the past two years held, the superintendency of a city school system in which there is one or more other departmental heads such as business manager, superintendent of buildings, etc., and in which there is a wide variety of schools represented, such as vocational schools, special classes for gifted and subnormal children, etc. A man who is fully up-to-date in matters pertaining to supervision of instruction. A man who has had uniformly conspicuous success in each of these classes of positions and especially in those cities where conditions made success difficult to attain.

In its query of 503 laymen and school employees regarding traits desired in their "next superintendent," the Committee on Certification of Superintendents of Schools found the following frequency of mention of twelve traits: [1]

1.	Character	413
2.	Business ability, finance, etc.	391
3.	Administrative or executive ability	383
4.	Personality	378
5.	Educational leadership	361
6.	Sociability	328
7.	Community leader	291
8.	Speaker	201
9.	Culture	158
10.	Writer	96
11.	Married and children	84
12.	Religion	47

Genius, however, knows no law, for occasionally a superintendent makes a brilliant success without one or more of

[1] *The Superintendent of Schools and His Work*, p. 37. Copyright by the American Association of School Administrators.

the qualifications mentioned. Although the defect may not be easily discernible, probably such a superintendent is really handicapped by lack of such qualifications, and his success would probably be even more brilliant if he did not suffer the handicap. With many superintendents the lack of one of the qualifications will constitute a serious handicap and is likely to cause their failure even though all other qualifications be possessed in a pre-eminent degree. A superintendent might possess the moral character and Christian spirit of a saint, the wisdom of a Solomon, the energy of an Edison, the ambition of a Napoleon, and the experience of a Methuselah, yet be so lacking in courage, tact, or other necessary qualities that he would fail.

Having decided upon the general qualifications which the superintendent should possess, the step of finding the most available person remains — the person who best measures up to the qualifications determined and who will accept the position at the salary and on the other conditions offered. To take the last step is always a real task and its difficulty is increased by the fact that in most vacancies there are scores, and occasionally hundreds, of applicants for the position. Many of the applicants are persistent and insistent, and the candidacies of the unqualified as well as of the qualified are promoted by the candidates and their friends. Nor is the promotion of candidacies always on an ethical and professional plane; frequently politics is played, and the welfare of the schools — which should ever be uppermost in mind — is almost forgotten by the candidates and their friends. Amidst such pull and haul the members of the board of education must stand foursquare and make their decisions with only the interests of all the children and the whole community in mind. Following is a summarization of suggestions which are calculated to help the board of education select the superintendent:

1. If the board of education has several members, for example, more than seven, and an inherent tendency therefore toward unwieldiness, it

should consider the feasibility of appointing a committee of, say, three of its members, to be responsible for checking up on the available "timber" and for making recommendations to the whole board. It should be emphasized, however, that the whole board should be satisfied with the recommendations which its committee makes, and the whole board should be responsible for the appointment. Attempt should be made to secure a candidate whom all members of the board can wholeheartedly endorse.

2. Suggestions of local school employees regarding available timber should be formally invited. This is not a proposal of the "dictatorship of the proletariat," but an inference that many school employees will have suggestions worth considering. The board of education should secure suggestions from all competent sources possible, then as the legal representative of all the people, it should make its decisions with the interests of the people at heart.

3. Suggestions regarding qualified candidates should be procured from other competent persons, such as professors, deans, and presidents of colleges and universities. Many boards of education have appointed advisory committees of local and non-resident educators to assist them in choosing their superintendents. Likewise, the suggestions of the outgoing superintendent regarding his successor should be secured and duly considered, though not necessarily always acted upon favorably by the board.

4. Qualified non-applicants as well as applicants should be considered. The person best qualified for the position is not always represented in the list of applicants. Many persons, well qualified and happy in their present work, will not enter what often turns out to be a mad scramble for a position. Boards of education should seek out and reward more of such persons.

5. Local school employees who are qualified should be considered, but they should not be favored or penalized just because they are *local* employees. Qualifications being as high, it is usually a tonic to the *esprit de corps* of the personnel to give the position to a local employee rather than to a non-resident; but let it be made sure that qualifications *are* really as high. The fact that a person has been an efficient principal, supervisor, or assistant superintendent gives some evidence, but not always sufficient evidence, that he will make an efficient superintendent of schools; the qualifications necessary for the superintendency are different in many regards from those necessary for other types of school-administrative positions.

6. When there is a large list of candidates under consideration, it will usually be helpful to eliminate all except the three, four, or five best qualified. When there are, as is frequently the case, several dozen candidates, more than one elimination will be helpful; thus, the list might

first be "weeded out" to eight or ten names, later to two or three names, then the final selection made from the list of two or three. All candidates not "weeded out" should be interviewed by the board as a whole.

7. Every candidate who is seriously considered should be carefully investigated. Each board member should make himself available for an interview with any candidate; in this interview and elsewhere he should not make a promise to support any candidate. Not only should the candidate's friends and references be consulted, but his enemies should have their inning. And where is there a person of accomplishment who has not made a few enemies! While we do not recommend the making of enemies, occasionally the enemies one has made are a vital point in his favor. Often it will be possible for a committee of the board to visit the communities in which the candidate has worked, or is working, and thus secure vital information.

8. Usually the best kind of information regarding a candidate is that which the board directly solicits and which comes to it confidentially. "To-whom-it-may-concern" recommendations and unsolicited letters from friends or enemies of the candidate should receive little attention. Letters regarding a candidate should never be given the candidate after the board is through with them; to do so is a breach of confidence even though the letters may be entirely commendatory.

9. Any attempt on the part of any candidate to use unethical means in promoting his candidacy, or the use of such means by his friends, provided he is aware of them and does not disavow them, should automatically bar the candidate from further consideration.

10. The names of candidates should never be publicly divulged by the board. Such information is usually embarrassing to the unsuccessful candidates and does no good. We read recently in a metropolitan newspaper that the board of education of City A was considering for its superintendency Messrs. C, E, G, N, and W (the full names being given). Mr. G received the appointment and all that Messrs. C, E, N, and W received was embarrassment from the newspaper announcement of the board; the embarrassment was especially bad for Mr. C because he had never been a candidate for the position and could not have accepted if he had been offered it.

11. As soon as the position is filled, all applicants should be immediately notified of the result.

Selection of administrative subordinates.[1] — After the board of education has appointed the superintendent, good

[1] Most of Chapter V, which discusses the selection of teachers, is also pertinent to the selection of administrative subordinates.

administrative procedure dictates that the board delegate to him the task of selecting, and recommending for appointment, all his administrative subordinates. In fact, he should be delegated this function for all school employees, whether administrative, supervisory, teaching, janitorial, or what not. This recommendation is made on the theory that the superintendent by virtue of the larger amount of time at his disposal, his professional training, his experience, and his executive responsibility is more competent to perform the function than are the members of the board of education. The members of boards of education do not have the time nor the specialized knowledge requisite for the selection of these employees. In school systems which have a superintendent, all applicants for positions should make their applications to, and pursue their candidacies with, the superintendent, and not to and with the board of education; it is worth remarking that the codes of ethics of several of the state teachers' associations enjoin this procedure upon all employees.

The recommendation that the superintendent should select and nominate for appointment all school employees does not imply that he should *elect* the employees and that the board of education should merely serve as his "rubber stamp"; the board of education should always be more than a rubber stamp. On all nominations of the superintendent the board of education should have the right of approval or of disapproval. As a rule, nominations should be made in writing, with each board member being handed a copy of the salient qualifications of the nominee. If the board disapproves a nomination which the superintendent has made, it should not appoint someone of its own selection; rather it should request the superintendent to make another nomination.

After the superintendent has selected his chief subordinates, for example, the business manager (if the system is large enough to require the services of a business manager) and

the principals, he should consult with these subordinates regarding the appointment of persons under their immediate direction. The business manager, for example, should be responsible for nominating to the superintendent of schools the superintendent of buildings and grounds, the purchasing agent, the school janitors, the chief accountant, and the other employees of the business department. The principals likewise would nominate the teachers of their buildings. All nominations should, of course, come through the office of the superintendent of schools and those that are there approved should be passed on to the board of education, which sits as the court of final authority. That such subordinates are not always competent to select their employees is readily admitted, but that is beside the point; such subordinates should be chosen as are qualified to perform this service.

ETHICS OF THE PROFESSION

The code of ethics movement. — During recent years there has been a widespread movement toward the development of codes of ethics by various businesses, professions, and other groups. Several hundred such groups now possess codes, and there are few groups of any considerable size which do not have a code. The oldest of these codes is "The Principles of Medical Ethics of the American Medical Association," which has its genesis in the famous Oath of Hippocrates promulgated in the fourth century B.C. The National Education Association did not adopt a code of ethics until 1929, although approximately two-thirds of the state education associations had adopted codes before that date.

A code of ethics is not designed to supplant the Decalogue, nor is it intended to be a general statement of morality. It deals with some of the chief customs, ideals, duties, obligations, and shortcomings of a particular group. It informs all members of the group concerning what is proper conduct in some of the more common types of friction-causing relations; this information is particularly helpful to new members of the

group. It deters those members of the group, who know the difference between right and wrong, from doing the wrong.

A code of ethics for school administrators. — Although the Code of Professional Ethics of the National Education Association and the codes of the various state and local education associations are designed to apply to all members of the profession, they should be supplemented by a special code for school administrators. Local, state, and national associations of school administrators should take the lead in adopting, publicizing, and enforcing such a code. A proposed code of professional ethics for school administrators is given herewith:

I. RELATIONS WITH PUPILS AND TO THE COMMUNITY AND STATE

1. The school exists to prepare its pupils for the best type of citizenship in a democracy, and every school administrator should always strive to accomplish that purpose. He should use his influence in making educational opportunities within his department, school, or school district as equal as possible and in meeting the needs of each pupil as fully as possible.

2. As an educational leader, he should strive to secure the co-operation of all forces for the improvement of the schools and should avoid alliances and practices which tend to defeat the accomplishment of that purpose.

3. He should enforce and follow all school laws and all local rules and regulations as long as they are in operation. He is under obligation, however, to support progressive proposals for changes in school organization, administration, and other educational procedures.

4. He should take appropriate steps to keep the community continuously and truthfully informed about the schools. For him to misrepresent any condition, accomplishment, or need of the schools in requesting school aid, in formulating a school budget, in making a school report, or in any other school procedure is unethical.

5. He should be candid and fair to parents and pupils and should strive to keep within the school all information regarding parents' or pupils' deficiencies.

6. He should protect the school against any individual or group wishing to use its work or prestige for partisan politics, personal gain, or selfish propaganda. He should not provide lists of the names and addresses of employees or pupils, except to reputable educational institutions

or other agencies which have an unselfish interest in the welfare of the employees or pupils; nor should he grant permission to agents to interview pupils and employees on school premises, except on business directly related to the school or the welfare of the employees or pupils.

7. He should demand that all school funds be spent without graft or other waste. To this end he should insist upon proper accounting and auditing of all school funds whether they be public or extracurricular.

II. RELATIONS TO THE PROFESSION

1. In seeking to secure a position or a promotion, the school administrator should use fair means. Some means which are not fair are the following:

a. Applying for positions not known to be vacant.
b. Underbidding a rival candidate or the salary schedule of the school system.
c. Undermining a rival candidate.
d. Misrepresenting his qualifications.
e. Applying for another position for the sole purpose of forcing an increase in salary in his present position.
f. Making promises to do something against the best interests of the pupils, the profession, or the public.

2. He should hold sacred his contract until he has fulfilled, or been released from, it.

3. He should seek the suggestions and co-operation of every employee in the administration and improvement of the school.

4. His relations with school officials and employees demand the same guarding of confidential information as is observed by ministers, physicians, and members of other long-established professions.

5. Under normal conditions, he should transact school business with the official or employee next in rank. This means, for example, that the superintendent should normally not confer with a teacher regarding a matter the teacher should discuss with her supervisor or principal; it means also that principals and supervisors should normally not confer with school board members on matters which they should discuss with the superintendent. When, however, the usual administrative channels do not function, any official or employee is permitted to confer with the next logical official or employee.

6. He should carefully consider all applications made to him for positions and should take feasible steps to notify each candidate of the status of his application. For him to recommend anyone for a position, except on basis of his having the best available qualifications for the position, is unethical.

7. He should reply to all requests for professional information regarding past and present employees. Such information should be candidly given, but with the employee always being afforded the benefit of any doubt.

8. He should encourage the advancement of worthy employees by recommending their promotion, either in his own school or school system or in other schools or school systems. For him to fail to recommend a worthy employee for another position because he does not desire to lose his services is unethical. It is also unethical for him to refuse promotions and salary increases to deserving employees until offers from other employers have forced him to grant them.

9. He should not take personal credit for a school accomplishment made by another person.

10. As soon as a qualified substitute can be secured, he should, upon the request of an employee, recommend him for release from his contract.

11. He should not act as an agent, or accept any remuneration, gift, or other favor for school books, supplies, equipment, or any other school material or service in the selection or purchase of which he has a part; nor should he accept any reward for helping a school employee to secure a position or promotion. For him to solicit to sell to his pupils or employees anything involving a profit to him is unethical.

12. He should defend school officials and employees when they are unjustly attacked. On the other hand, he should not hesitate to recommend the disbarment of any whose conduct is a reproach to the profession.

13. He should give any adverse criticisms of an employee to him only in private.

14. Ample evidence, rather than unconfirmed rumor, should be the only basis for judgment concerning an employee or for action against him. He should avoid gossiping with anyone about a school official or employee.

15. Every employee should be given all reasonable encouragement and assistance which will enable him to give his best service; the new and inexperienced employee is especially entitled to such help.

16. Unless he has convincing evidence that a teacher has been unfair to a pupil, he should not interfere between the teacher and pupil in marking, discipline, or similar matters.

17. He should take every reasonable step to help his successor.

18. He should maintain membership and activity in local, state, and national educational organizations, and he should take all other feasible steps to improve his efficiency and the welfare of the profession.

19. He should help to publicize this code among school administrators and to secure its enforcement by them. (This means, of course, after the

code or a revision of it has been adopted by school administrators' organizations.)

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Do you agree with the statement that the superintendency of schools is the most important position in a community? Why or why not? Would you prefer to be an administrator or a teacher provided the salaries were the same? Why?

2. Do you agree with the oft-quoted remark to the effect that "an institution is the lengthened shadow of an individual"? Why or why not? Is it extravagant to say that "the superintendent makes the school system largely what it is"? Explain.

3. What legal qualifications, if any, must a superintendent of schools in your state possess? What legal qualifications, if any, would you recommend? Should he be required to have a certificate?

4. What do you consider to be some of the characteristics of good executives? Are these characteristics inherited or acquired? Explain.

5. Do you consider teaching experience a necessary type of experience for the superintendent? Explain. Of what benefit, if any, to the superintendent is experience as a school principal?

6. What are some of the chief means by which the superintendent can keep abreast of his profession?

7. Why are there usually more applicants for a vacancy in the superintendency than for any other type of educational position? Should the profession take steps to decrease the number of applicants? Why or why not?

8. What steps might school people take to remove the "political" incubus which attaches to the superintendency in many communities?

9. What length of term of office, if any, do the laws of your state specify? Should the term be specified by state law, or should it be determined entirely by the board? Explain your view. What length of term would you recommend? Why? What explanations are there for the short tenure of superintendents?

10. According to your observation what are the chief reasons why superintendents fail to make good?

11. What explanations can you give of the fact that superintendents frequently lose the confidence of their boards of education, but are able to keep the confidence of the school employees and the public?

12. Under what sort of circumstances, if any, should the superintendent make a public fight to hold his position from which his board is about to oust him?

13. How do you explain the fact that friction frequently develops between the high school principal and the superintendent of schools? How may this friction be avoided?

14. Would you accept a position from which the immediately preceding occupant had been dismissed unjustly? Why or why not?

15. Do you agree with the view that the superintendent must be a practical politician? Explain.

16. How may the superintendent avoid spending all his time on petty details to the neglect of the more constructive side of the service?

17. What explanation is there for the fact that school board members commonly regard superintendents as experts along educational lines but as incompetents along business lines? Is that estimate just?

18. Can the paying of school administrators much larger salaries than teachers be justified? Why or why not?

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Chapter III

SCHOOL CONTROL AND ORGANIZATION

GENERAL POLICIES OF SCHOOL CONTROL

American versus foreign policies. — In no other country do the schools belong to the people as much as in the United States; and in no other country is the administration of the schools as close to the people. Whereas in other countries school management is in the main a governmental affair concerning which the public does not have much voice, in the United States the public controls the schools through such means as the election of school officials and the voting of revenues. As a rule, the administration of the school systems of foreign countries is more highly centralized than in the United States. In most foreign countries school affairs are a division of the central government, are financed largely or wholly by the central government, and are directed by a minister of education or a secretary of education; moreover, there is complete or great uniformity in school procedures in the various communities of those countries. From the point of view of control, organization, and administration, therefore, the school systems of most foreign countries may be called *national*.

Whereas in most foreign countries there is only one school system, in the United States there is a separate school system for each state and each territory; thus, there are in the United States 48 state school systems and 8 territorial school systems. Each of these school systems is sovereign and determines its own destiny; there is no federal control as there is in most

foreign countries, nor is there federal support for general education as there is in most foreign countries. From the point of view of control, organization, and administration there is no "American system of schools" in the sense that there is an English, a French, or a Japanese system of schools.

Our state and territorial systems of schools are, however, more similar than dissimilar. Although they differ in detail, in their fundamentals they are somewhat similar. They have, for example, somewhat similar forms of organization, somewhat similar means of financial support, and somewhat similar curriculums. And unquestionably the domination of a common ideal, namely, *that every individual shall have a certain quantum of education, and may have it at public expense "from the gutter through the university,"* has been the chief factor in causing similarity in our school systems. Guided by this common ideal, our school systems have become increasingly similar through the long-time operation of experimentation and imitation. This experimentation and imitation have worked somewhat as follows: a certain community or state has adopted a given policy, has demonstrated the merit of the policy, and before many years have elapsed other communities or states — perhaps all of them — have adopted the essential features of the same policy. It is this common educational ideal and this similarity in the essential elements of the American state and territorial school systems which residents of foreign countries and our own citizens have in mind when they speak of the "American system of education," or when they call this system a *national* system.

Explanations for our policy. — Contrary to the practice of most foreign countries, there has never been much federal control of schools in the United States; there has not been much federal control because there has not been much federal support. Education was not mentioned in either the Articles of Confederation adopted in 1783 or in the Constitution of the United States adopted in 1787; apparently these frameworks of government assumed, at least by silence, that

the function of education was to be left to the states. Moreover, the tenth amendment to the United States Constitution, which amendment was ratified in 1791, affirmed that "the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." [1] What are the explanations for the failure of our forefathers to make provision for federal organization, support, and control of schools? The following explanations may be given:

1. The thirteen original colonies which joined hands to form the United States had begun colonial systems of education long before the adoption of the federal Constitution. Moreover, these colonial systems represented various educational traditions and beliefs which the several colonies were interested in maintaining, and which they were afraid they could not maintain under federal control of education.
2. There were many urgent problems of the new federal government without undertaking those of education. Besides, because society was then less complex than today, education was less necessary; moreover, the home, the church, and other agencies were then much more potent factors in education than today, and their efforts made a formal educational agency, such as the school, less necessary.
3. Our forefathers were skeptical of making a central government too strong. They desired to maintain the proper balance of power between the federal government and the state governments. They preferred strong state governments to a strong federal government. There was not much feeling of nationalism in those days.

Comparative merits of state and national control. — Although education in the United States has historically been under the control of the states and of the local communities, and although there appears to have been fairly general satisfaction with such control, arguments are frequently presented for federal control. For federal control, such as

[1] In view of this amendment, it may be questioned whether, without a change in the Constitution, the federal government could legally assume control of education. It is believed, however, that such control would be legal; at any rate, the federal government has always financed and controlled the educational programs of all the CCC projects and this practice would seem to be an ample test of the legality of federal control.

most foreign countries have, it is argued that such control would beget greater pedagogical and financial efficiency. It is further argued that in state and local control funds are frequently wasted both through the adoption of poor policies and through the administration of excellent policies; the protagonists of federal control maintain that much of this waste would be eliminated through federal control. For federal control it is also argued that through it educational opportunities and school tax burdens would be equalized among the various states, whereas state and local control begets large inequalities in such opportunities and tax burdens.

The arguments just stated for federal control are attacked, however, by the proponents of state and local control. It is argued that state and local control enables the states and local communities to meet their individual needs, whereas federal control might result in a national bureaucracy and uniformity which would neglect the needs of the various states and of the various communities within the states. It is argued, too, that state and local control more readily permits educational experimentation, the results of which may become immediately known to, and adopted by, other states and other communities.

Federal control is not likely to come so long as the states maintain efficient school systems and finance them without too much federal aid. It, however, is certain to come, as it should come, if the states fail to meet their obligations to their children. For anyone to advocate federal aid without any federal control is to advocate nonsense; federal control has always followed federal aid.

Federal interest in education. — Although education was not mentioned in the Articles of Confederation or in the Constitution of the United States, and although there has not been much federal control of education in the United States, the federal government has always been interested in education. The presidents of the United States and other leaders in the life of the nation have almost universally ex-

pressed their faith and interest in education.[1] For example, George Washington, our first president (1789–1797), said in his Farewell Address on September 17, 1796:

> Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

John Adams, our second president (1797–1801), uttered the following ringing pronouncement on the importance of education and on the responsibility of the people for providing the financial support for a universal system of schools:

> The whole people must take upon themselves the education of the whole people and must be willing to bear the expense of it. There should not be a district of one mile square without a school in it at the expense of the people themselves.

Thomas Jefferson, our third president (1801–1809), recognized the importance of education as few other persons of his time did. More than any other person he was responsible for translating and adapting the gospel of the French Revolutionists — the gospel of liberty, equality, and fraternity — to American conditions. Jefferson had abiding faith in democracy, and he saw that democracy could not be achieved by an ignorant citizenry. Education, therefore, was seen by him to be the ferment which was necessary to make democracy work. This faith of Jefferson in education is seen in the following quotation from him:

> If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization it expects what never was and never will be. The functions of every government have propensities to command at will the liberty and property of their constituents. There is no safe deposit for these but with the people themselves; nor can they be safe with them without information.

[1] For a selected list of such statements the interested reader is referred to "Expressions on Education by American Statesmen and Publicists," *U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin*, 1913, No. 28.

It is not merely with sympathetic sentiments and words that the federal government has shown its interest in education. That interest has been shown in at least two material ways. In the first place, the federal government has granted millions of acres of land and hundreds of millions of dollars to the states for the support of education; [1] a description of these grants will be given in Chapter XIV and need not be taken up here. In the second place, the interest of the federal government in education has been demonstrated through the creation of many bureaus, offices, and departments which are wholly or partly educational.

The chief educational agency of the federal government is the United States Office of Education. In 1866 the National Association of State and City School Superintendents (now the American Asssociation of School Administrators) went on record as favoring a federal bureau of education. This organization was supported in its request by many other organizations and many private citizens. A bill providing for such a department was introduced in Congress by James A. Garfield, at that time a member of Congress, but later to become president of the United States. The bill was enacted into law on March 2, 1867; it read as follows:

> Be it enacted, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled. That there shall be established, at the city of Washington, a department of education, for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country. —
>
> 39th Congress, 2d Session — 1867. (14 Stat. L., p. 434.)

In 1869 the Department of Education, which was created by the law of 1867, was replaced by the Office of Education

[1] This policy was begun as early as 1785, when lot 16 in each congressional township in the Northwest Territory was set aside for the support of schools.

and made a division of the Department of the Interior. In 1870 the office was renamed the Bureau of Education, and this title was retained until 1929 when the title of Office of Education was restored. In 1939 the Office of Education was transferred from the Department of the Interior to the newly created Federal Security Agency. The ranking official of the office has always held the title of commissioner of education. Although the commissioner has always been appointed by the president on a semi-political basis, practically all of them have been outstanding educators and have done much to promote the development of good schools.

The functions of the office as outlined in the statutes of 1867 creating the office have been closely followed. Its general function has been to stimulate the development of education, not to control or administer it. The chief work of the office has been to collect and to disseminate information on education. The office now diffuses information through (1) its many publications consisting of reports of special studies, of a magazine called *School Life*, of the biennial survey of education, and of other works; (2) conferences of educational and lay leaders, these conferences being called by the commissioner of education or other members of his staff; (3) correspondence; and (4) addresses by the commissioner of education and his staff members. The statistical reports of the office are recognized as the most complete and accurate reports on education in the world, in spite of the fact that the office does not have the legal power to require state and local officials to provide the information on which the reports are based. During recent years the office has conducted, at the request of local and state governing boards, many surveys of local and state educational systems and of colleges and universities. It has also been given the duty of supervising the distribution and expenditure of funds for vocational education and other purposes.

A large part of the service of the office is provided gratis

and any of it may be procured at actual cost. For example, many of the publications of the office may be secured free, while those not free may be secured at actual cost; any of these may be procured from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. For the use of its staff and of any citizen of the United States, the office maintains what is probably the most complete library on education in the world. Among its numerous services the library staff has prepared bibliographies on many educational topics, and will upon request, so far as its time and resources permit, prepare other bibliographies; such service is available to any school employee or other citizen, usually free of charge.

In addition to the Office of Education there are numerous other federal agencies which perform educational services. As a matter of fact, every department of the federal government may be said to be partly educational. Every department has as one of its reasons for existence the giving of service, and one large phase of that service is the providing of available information to any citizen who requests it.

Many of our citizens believe that the federal government has not shown sufficient interest and participation in education. Further interest and participation in education for the federal government has been advocated from time to time along three lines: (1) a federal department of education with a secretary of education co-ordinate with the other federal departments such as the Department of State, the Department of the Navy, and the Department of Agriculture; (2) federal aid to general education, as is now given to certain phases of special education, such as vocational education; and (3) the establishment of a national university.

Each of these proposals has had numerous and influential advocates, and many sessions of Congress have seen bills introduced looking toward placing the proposals into legislation. None of the bills, however, has been enacted into law. The proposal for a national university has been made since

the days of George Washington, who made provision in his will for such an institution. This recommendation has been repeated by many succeeding presidents, but no action has been taken probably because of the development of many state and private universities of national reputation.

Although many earlier proposals had been made for a Department of Education and for a federal subsidy for general education, these two proposals became particularly noticeable about the time of the close of the World War in 1919. The World War gave one of the greatest stimuli which education has ever received. On the credit side of the educational ledger, the war demonstrated that education enabled our soldiers to make greater progress than they could have made without education; for example, it was found that by far the majority of the men who won commissions in the training camps as officers were college graduates. On the debit side of the ledger, the war recorded the fact that one-fourth of the soldiers — and they, it should be noted, were the flower of American manhood, between the ages of twenty and thirty — who responded to the draft were unable to read an English newspaper and to write a letter. The draft also showed that approximately 29 per cent of the soldiers could not be accepted for general military service because of physical incompetency. Moreover, it was found that the soldiers who came from certain states, especially the states which had not developed efficient school systems, had a much larger percentage of illiteracy and physical disability than the soldiers who came from other states. These were disconcerting facts and stood out as a criticism of our state school systems for their not having discovered and corrected these handicaps of our citizenry. Then it was that education came to be more and more looked upon as not a state problem alone, but as a problem in which the federal government must become more and more interested if its welfare and safety were to be assured.

Since 1918, practically every session of Congress has seen

at least one bill introduced for the establishment of a federal department of education with a secretary of education in the president's cabinet. Most of these bills have also provided for a large subsidy to the states for education. As yet, none of these bills has been enacted into law; in fact, none of them has passed either the House of Representatives or the Senate.

The advocates of these proposals argue that education does not have sufficient prestige at present in the federal government. They point out that in the federal government education does not have a higher rank than such activities as the dairy industry, the plant industry, and entomology. They argue that a department of education headed by a secretary of education would make education more articulate. They argue further that education vitally affects the welfare and progress of the whole nation, and that, in consequence, the federal government should take a larger interest in it.

Contrariwise, the opponents of such legislation point out the danger of bureaucracy in any federal control of education. They fear a pauperization of the states and local districts and an encroachment upon the American ideals of liberty and individuality; they state that a federal department of education and a federal subsidy for education would tend to remove the control of the schools from the hands of the people and to place it in the hands of federal officials who would be in a position to regiment the education and the lives of the people. They fear also that placing a secretary of education in the Cabinet would throw education into the maelstrom of "politics" on a national scale.

STATE VERSUS LOCAL CONTROL OF EDUCATION

Evolution of state control. — One of the outstanding changing conceptions of the people of the United States has been concerning the relative responsibility of the state and of the local community for education. In the early days the

local communities were in complete control of education, and the colonial and state constitutions and statutes were silent on education. In those days the local communities could provide schools or not provide them as they chose; or if they provided them, they could provide any kind — efficient or inefficient.

To the credit of the faith of the American people in education, it is worth repeating that many communities provided truly public schools before there were state laws requiring such action. Schools were often established as soon as the settlers had established their homes; the home came first, then the church, and next the school. In Massachusetts, for example, the first permanent settlement was made in 1620, and schools which were truly public were established by certain communities as early as 1635.

Notwithstanding the avid and widespread interest of the early settlers in education, it was soon found that leaving to each community the decision of whether schools should be established resulted in many communities not establishing them. In consequence, the state legislatures deemed it advisable to enact legislation for the establishment, the organization, and the support of schools. Massachusetts, for example, as early as 1647, enacted a law which required each community having 50 or more householders to establish an elementary school, and each community having 100 or more householders to establish a grammar school in addition to an elementary school. Even before the law of 1647, Massachusetts had enacted in 1642 a law which required parents to see that their children were taught to read. The law of 1642, however, placed the educational obligation wholly upon the *parent* and did not require the establishment of a school, whereas the law of 1647 placed the educational obligation largely upon the *community* and required the establishment of a school.

The Massachusetts laws of 1642 and 1647 were the genesis of state control of education; they were the beginning of

compulsory education.[1] Since that time hundreds of other laws have been enacted in each of the 48 states to provide for the establishment, the organization, the supervision, the control, and the support of schools; in fact, there is today scarcely a feature of the organization and administration of schools upon which the state laws are silent. Moreover, all the present state constitutions have a pronouncement on the importance of education and on the place of the state in education; many of these pronouncements follow closely the language of the famous Ordinance of 1787, which declared that "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged."

Education as a state function. — From the earliest days the conviction has been growing among the people and their leaders that the state must be responsible for seeing that its citizens have a certain quantum of education. That the state has this responsibility is shown by the state constitutions, the hundreds of school statutes in each state, and the scores of decisions of local, state, and federal courts. In brief, education has come to be universally regarded as a state function. The assumption of educational control by the state is not fortuitous; state control has come because of the early and ever-growing belief that education is the buttress of a democratic government and cannot, therefore, be left too much to the whims of any individual or of any community. In a democracy the people cannot be permitted to remain ignorant although some of them might desire that status.

It is true that for the administration of the schools the state has delegated most of its functions to counties, cities, towns, villages, townships, and other local school districts. These powers and duties have been delegated by the legislatures which are the supreme lawmaking bodies in state government. If a state wishes to increase or to decrease the powers and

[1] Compulsory school attendance, though, did not come until 1852, Massachusetts being the first state to enact such a law.

duties which it has delegated to local school officials, it may do so through changing its laws. Local school officials and employees are, therefore, merely agents of the state for carrying out the educational dictates of the state; if they are also responsible to the people of the local community, it is only because the state has delegated to the people of the local community a certain amount of the responsibility for education.

Desirable limitations of state control.[1] — From the beginning the tendency has been for the state to assume larger control of education. In brief, as the years have passed, local communities have given to state government more and more of the control of education. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that such responsibility has been *taken from* local communities by state government, because local communities have not given up willingly their educational prerogatives. Much as it has been opposed, the drift has been toward centralization; and, as would be expected, there is a larger amount of state control in the older states, that is, the Eastern states, than in the newer states of the other sections of the United States.

What are desirable limits of state control? On the one hand, there are many persons who believe that state control has already gone far enough in the typical state; in fact, some believe that it has gone too far. They maintain that the control now exercised in certain states is tending to stifle community interest and initiative, and that it often fails to keep in mind the needs of local communities; they claim that through its power to control education, and especially through its power to determine what shall be taught, the state is likely to try to regiment its citizens by indoctrinating them with only one point of view. These persons worship the "God of individuality" and often disdain the "God of social co-operation." They are the "rugged individualists."

On the other hand, there are many persons who believe

[1] An elaboration of the views and facts here stated may be found in *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*, Educational Policies Commission, 1938, pp. 81–88.

that state control in the typical state has not gone far enough. They point out that many communities are ignorant and selfish and would become a cancer upon the state if they were not thwarted. They contend that schools will be more efficient when the state legislatures have enacted more stringent laws which determine most educational standards, policies, and procedures of local communities. These persons worship the "God of social co-operation" and often despise the "God of individuality." They are the "social planners."

The problem is, therefore, that of reconciling the two American ideals of (1) individuality and (2) social co-operation. In fact, this problem has existed since the beginning of our government. The problem can never be solved by a program which veers too far either to the "left" or to the "right."

Probably the best type of control — and this is the ideal toward which practice seems to be striving — would be for the state to establish minimum standards, especially in the more fundamental aspects of an educational program, which every community in the state would be expected to meet. When the minimum standards have been established, prudence would dictate that the local community be permitted to exercise its initiative in experimenting and in exceeding those standards. Good procedure demands, therefore, that each community have ample freedom of action, but that it be conscious of its social responsibilities in exercising its freedom. In any event, since education is so important for the individual and for society, the state should make sure that no pupil, because of his residence, poverty, or other vicissitude of fortune, is denied his educational patrimony; the realization of this ideal will require much more state control than is found in the typical state today.

STATE CONTROL OF PRIVATE EFFORT IN EDUCATION [1]

Evolution of private effort. — The first schools established in the United States were private, and in many of the colonial

[1] As used here the term "private schools" includes parochial schools.

and state governments for several decades private school enrollment exceeded public school enrollment. Since the universal establishment of public schools and the improving of those schools, the percentage of the total population enrolled in public schools has been increasing and the percentage enrolled in private schools has been decreasing. This tendency has been noticed particularly during recent decades, and especially in the secondary schools and the colleges. The percentage of all elementary school pupils now enrolled in private schools is approximately 10; the percentage of all secondary school pupils now enrolled in private schools is approximately 7; and the percentage of all college students enrolled in private institutions is approximately 45.

What are the motives which have impelled millions of parents to send their children to private schools where they usually must pay tuition at the same time that they must pay taxes to support the public schools? Two motives stand out: first, there has been the belief on the part of many parents that the private school is better than the public school — at least that it can better meet the needs of *their* children; second, there has been the desire, especially in the case of the parochial schools, to give the child instruction in religion, which could not be given legally in a public school.[1]

Amount of state control of private effort. — With few exceptions the historic policy of the state legislatures has been to encourage private effort in education. Seldom has legislation been enacted which would discourage private effort; neither has there been an undue amount of state control of such effort. In the early days, not only was there an entire absence of state supervision and control of private schools, but such schools were frequently supported largely by public moneys. Shortly after the opening of the nineteenth century, however, the policy of giving public funds for the support of

[1] Hundreds of public schools now make provision for the pupils, who desire, to go to their respective churches during a certain period to receive religious instruction. Many also make provision for giving instruction in the Bible in connection with the English courses.

private schools began to be questioned, and it was not long before the legislatures of practically all the states enacted statutes prohibiting the use of public funds for the support of private schools. Moreover, as new constitutions were adopted or as old ones were amended, most of the states wrote into them a section which prohibited the use of public moneys for the support of private schools.[1]

Coincident with the enactment of legislation prohibiting the expenditure of public funds for the financing of private schools came legislation which established certain state inspection of private as well as of public schools. At present, such inspection extends from almost nothing in some states to a great amount in other states. Certain states require the same minimum standards of private schools as are required of public schools; other states have little or no state control for private schools, except to check up the attendance of children in these schools. The tendency, however, in both theory and practice is to require private schools to meet the same minimum standards which are demanded of public schools. Private schools seldom, and they should never, object to meeting such standards.

Although they are easily in the minority, many of our fellow citizens believe that for the state merely to *control* private schools does not go far enough. They would *abolish* such schools because of their belief that they are snobbish and do not provide equality of opportunity. In brief, they believe that all children should be required to attend the public schools. This feeling became sufficiently strong in one state (Oregon) a few years ago (1922) to secure the enactment of a law which would have abolished all private schools for children below the age of sixteen. The law, however, was declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court in 1925; part of that famous decision reads as follows:

[1] A few states have recently enacted laws which provide free textbooks and transportation for private school pupils the same as for public school pupils. The courts have declared such aid legal because it is given to the pupils and not to the school.

> The fundamental theory of liberty upon which all governments in the Union repose excludes any general power of the State to standardize its children by forcing them to accept instruction from public teachers only. The child is not the mere creature of the State; those who nurture him and direct his destiny have the right coupled with the high duty to recognize and prepare him for additional duties.

STATE ORGANIZATION FOR EDUCATION

Earlier in this chapter it was stated that education has from almost the earliest days been regarded as a state function; this is demonstrated by state statutes, state constitutions, and decisions of the courts. It was not until 1784, however, that a state established machinery for the general supervision and control of education. This first legislation was enacted by the state of New York when it created the so-called "university" with its Board of Regents, and gave this phantom institution and its governing board jurisdiction over the colleges and academies of the state. The University of the State of New York which was created by the Act of 1784 was not, however, in the commonly accepted sense a university at all; it was rather a state board of education and has remained so throughout its history.

Not only was New York the first state to establish a state board of education, but it was the first state to make provision for a chief state school official. In 1812 the legislature enacted a law which provided for the appointment of a state superintendent of common schools. Gideon Hawley was appointed on January 14, 1813, to this office, and thus became the first chief state school official in the United States.

How are we to account for the long delay in establishing the state board of education and the chief state school official, which today are considered so necessary that the latter is found in every state and the former in practically every state? At least two retarding influences stand out. First, the early theory of individual and community rights met with popular approval. To our forefathers any centralization of power and authority smacked of autocracy; and to autocracy they were

unalterably opposed. Second, the idea of the association of the church and the state was prevalent and was difficult to eradicate from the minds of the people. These two influences made for decentralization in school organization down to almost the middle of the nineteenth century, and kept even the beginnings of state supervision from appearing until the opening of the nineteenth century. The offices must wait until unmistakable needs would bring them into being.

The state board of education. — The second state [1] to establish a state board of education was Massachusetts, in 1837. Connecticut followed in 1838. Since those dates practically all states have created such boards with general educational functions. The few remaining states have state boards but with restricted functions, such as administering the vocational laws [2] or administering all or some of the state institutions of higher learning. A full-fledged state board of education is recommended for every state for the following reasons:

1. It is more representative of the interests of all the people than a single individual is. It secures different points of view. It is more democratic.

2. It is more likely to select the chief state school official and his assistants on the basis of merit than is true under other methods of appointment. Subject to legislative enactments, it determines educational policies, directs the chief state school official in executing the policies, and keeps him and his staff in office as long as their services are satisfactory. In brief, it helps to remove the state department of education from the cloud of politics.

3. It has greater prestige with the legislature, the governor, and school officials than a single individual has. It gives the public greater confidence in the management of its schools.

4. It gives greater stability and continuity to state educational policies.

[1] Since the New York Board of Regents, established in 1784, had control for several decades only over colleges and academies, the honor of having the first full-fledged state board of education is sometimes given to Massachusetts.

[2] The federal vocational education law, enacted in 1917, required every state wishing federal aid for vocational education to have some kind of board for the administration of such aid. Since the enactment of this federal law, every state has had such a board.

School progress throughout the state is best served when policies and programs can be planned with complete confidence that they will not suddenly be cast into the discard by each new chief state school official.

The function of the state boards varies from that of merely advising the state commissioner of education, as is the case in Massachusetts, to large control of the educational system in the other states. The state Board of Regents, which is the state board of education in the state of New York, has larger powers and duties than the board of any other state; its supervision extends over the colleges and universities as well as the elementary and secondary schools. The tendency has been to give the state board of education larger functions, and at present, in most states, it has general supervision over elementary and secondary school education in the state; this function is exercised with the assistance of the chief state school official.

In most states, there is still a two-headed state organization for education, consisting of a state board of education usually appointed by some state agency, on the one hand, and a chief state school official elected by the people, on the other. The evils inherent in such a two-headed organization have been mitigated in most states by making the chief state school official an ex officio member and an ex officio officer of the state board; the tendency has been to make him the chief executive officer of the state board. Frequently, however, the state board of education is responsible to a different authority than the chief state school official and this has often led to friction. This dual type of school control, which is found in most state departments of education, is shown in Fig. 1. The unit type of control, which is recommended, is shown in Fig. 2.

The number of members on state boards of education ranges from three to twelve, seven and six-tenths being the average number. The members are selected in one of the following manners: appointment by the governor, appointment by the chief state school official (Wyoming only), election by

popular vote at a regular or a special election, ex officio membership, or by a combination of two or more of the plans just mentioned. As a rule, the members are selected at large, that is, to represent the whole state and not a particular

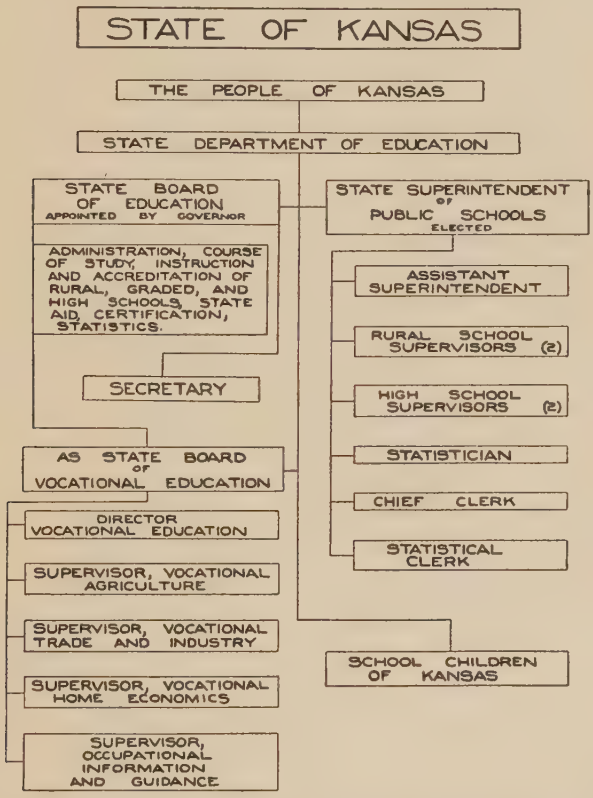


FIG. 1. — Organization Chart, Department of Education, State of Kansas. (From J. W. Twente, *University of Kansas Bulletin of Education*, February, 1940, Vol. IV, p. 26.)

section of the state; as a rule, no legal qualifications are prescribed for the members except residence within the state; with few exceptions, the members serve without pay. The term of office ranges from one year to twelve years; the average term is five and three-tenths years.

The tendency in best practice is toward having a state board of education with 7 or 9 members, all of whom are appointed by the governor. The term of office should be the same number of years as the number of members on the board; one member should retire each year. The members should serve without pay. Most features of the office, together with all powers and duties, should be prescribed by statute rather than by constitution. Constitutions should be regarded as frameworks of government and should not be cluttered with details.

The state department of education. — Every state has a state department of education, which is composed of the chief state school official and his staff. The title which has been most frequently used in designating the chief state school official is superintendent of public instruction; this title is now found in approximately two-thirds of the states, chiefly Western and Southern. The next most frequently used title has usually been commissioner of education, which is now found in ten states, chiefly Eastern. Other titles now used are superintendent of schools, superintendent of public schools, superintendent of education, superintendent of public education, director of education, and superintendent of free schools.[1] The term of office is now usually prescribed by law at either two or four years, but a few states prescribe an indefinite tenure. The annual salary now ranges from $2400 (North Dakota) to $15,000 (New York); the average salary is $5583 annually.

The office of chief state school official is potentially the most important educational office in a state, the presidency of the state university not excepted. The importance of the office is more fully realized when it is remembered that education is not only the most important business of the state, but by far the largest business. The chief state school official has

[1] An up-to-date list of the occupants of this office, together with their official titles, can be found in *Educational Directory*, which is published annually by the U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

the responsibility for directing this large and important public enterprise.

The office should be the head and the heart of the school system of the state. It should encourage, supervise, and direct the development of the whole school system of the state from the kindergarten through the university. It should bring every worthy educational endeavor in the state within its vitalizing influence. Unfortunately, this ideal is not always realized; it is not realized because the legislation pertaining to the office is archaic in many respects. Like Topsy, the office in most states has "just growed," and the growing-up period has been fairly short, dating back only to 1812, the date of its first establishment in New York.

The chief handicap under which the office labors results from the method of selecting the incumbent. Approximately two-thirds of the states still elect the chief state school official by popular vote, and practically all of these still elect him on a partisan ticket. The remaining states permit either the governor or the state board of education to select him. Popular election may be criticized on the following bases: (1) it establishes residence restrictions for its candidates; (2) it results in a low and static salary; (3) it begets a short tenure for the holder of the office; (4) and worse than all, it subjects the selection of the person best qualified for the office to the vicissitudes of politics. The chief state school official should be an expert in school administration and the people should delegate the responsibility of selecting him to some such group of their representatives as the state board of education.

There are many other handicaps under which the office still labors. Most of these handicaps are the result of statutes and constitutions which were enacted or adopted years ago, and have become petrified and difficult to change. This petrification of the forms of the office has been especially the result of the state constitutions which, as a rule, not only mandate the legislature to create and maintain the office, but

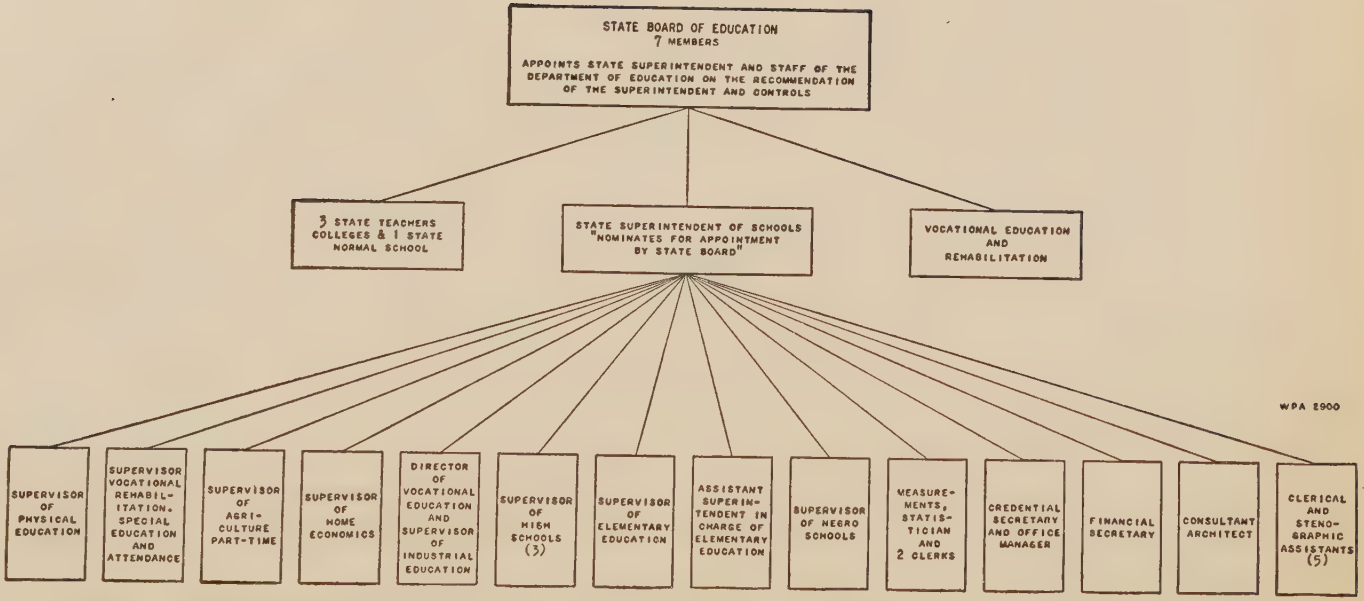


FIG. 2.—Organization Chart, Department of Education, State of Maryland. (From W. D. Cocking and C. H. Gilmore, *Organization and Administration of Public Education*, p. 95.)

prescribe many of its important features. Approximately two-thirds of the states now explicitly provide for the office in their state constitutions, and most of these constitutions prescribe certain of the features of the office. Among the features frequently thus prescribed are the title of the office, the manner of selecting the incumbent of the office, the eligibility requirements for the incumbent of the office, the term of office, the salary, the relation of the office to the state board of education, and many of the powers and duties of the office. Such features have become petrified over a long period of years and have frequently been unable to give way expeditiously to new and better practices. It is not fortuitous that the more modern state departments of education are found in the Eastern states, which as a rule do not prescribe in their constitutions any of the features of the office; those states have left entirely to the legislatures the establishing of such features.

To have the best leadership from the state department of education will require the most favorable conditions pertaining to the office of chief state school official, because the chief state school official makes the department principally what it is. Such favorable conditions would be somewhat as follows: The chief state school official should be appointed by the state board of education without regard to his residence, his politics, or any other extraneous factor; in brief, he should be appointed wholly on the basis of his ability to direct the state's system of education. He should be paid a salary commensurate to his ability and to the importance of his office, and such salary should be determined by the state board of education. The term of office should be indefinite, or of a sufficient number of years to make possible the development of a constructive educational program. Under the general control, supervision, and direction of the state board of education, which should appoint him, the chief state school official should be the executive head of the state school system. For the prompt and efficient performance of its

work, the office should be given an adequate and competent staff, and the members of this staff should be selected and paid wholly on the basis of their ability and their accomplishments. All the recommendations just made are feasible because the practices on which they are based have been in successful operation in several states for many years.

LOCAL ORGANIZATION FOR EDUCATION

School-administrative units.[1] — Although the state is the legal unit for the control of schools, most of the actual administration of the schools has been delegated by the state to subdivisions of the state; these subdivisions are known as school districts. With the exception of a few decades at the beginning of the schools, the school districts have generally been autonomous. As a rule, they are entirely independent, fiscally and otherwise, from other governmental activities. This separation was decided upon by the legislatures because of the belief that the schools should have protection from the changing fortunes of partisan politics which frequently obtains in the administration of other phases of government. For the reason just given this separation is still favored by practically all professional educators. But the separation is vigorously opposed by practically all authorities in political science; they believe that the separation is in the long run unwholesome both for the schools and for the other phases of government.

Within the United States there are approximately 125,000 school districts, and these districts are governed by approximately 420,000 school board members. The absurdities in present organization will be immediately glimpsed from the fact that several states have more school board members than school employees. There are numerous types of school

[1] The *school-administrative unit* should not be confused with the *school-attendance unit*. The territory within which pupils attending a certain school reside is known as a school-attendance unit or school-attendance area. Most school-administrative units contain more than one school, hence more than one school-attendance unit.

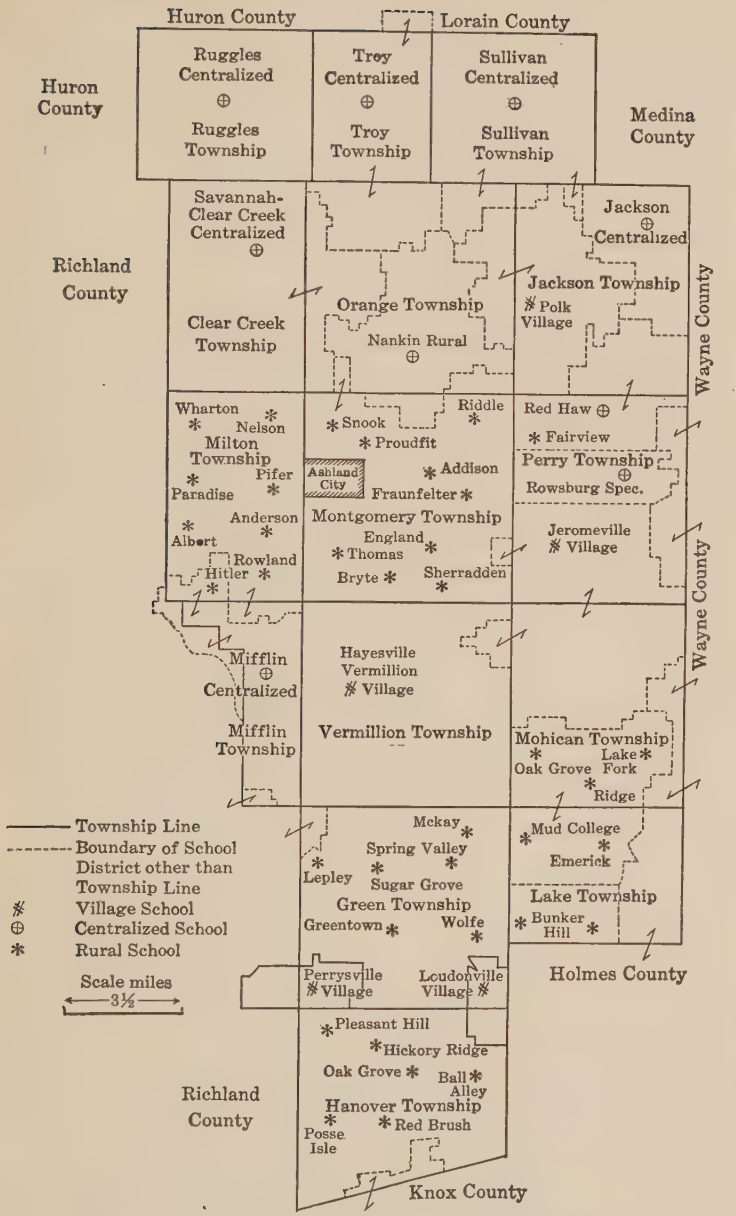


FIG. 3. —School Districts in a Typical County, Ashland County, Ohio.

districts; in fact, each state has several types. The districts vary in size from the small rural district, employing only one teacher and enrolling only a few pupils, to the large city and county systems, employing thousands of teachers and enrolling more than a million pupils. The districts are known by various names such as county, city, common school, graded, town, township, consolidated, central, community, joint union graded, union high, township high, and county high. The average size of the districts ranges from 5 square miles in Illinois and New York to 2055 square miles in Utah. The number of districts in a state ranges from 24 in Maryland to approximately 12,000 in Illinois. In the New England states the town is usually the administrative unit; in the Western states the township or a modification of the township is usually the administrative unit; in the Southern states the county is usually the administrative unit.

The tendency in both theory and practice is toward a larger unit for school administration, especially for the rural schools. Every year sees the demise of hundreds of school districts through their merger with other districts.[1] Every year, moreover, sees powers and duties subtracted from small administrative units and given to an intermediate unit, which is usually called the county; this tendency has been accelerated recently by the large increase in state aid for schools.

Forward-looking educators and laymen are agreed that the greatest handicap to rural school efficiency and progress today is the small units under which rural schools are organized and administered. Moreover, they are agreed that these small units are a chief explanation for the lag in rural school administration compared with city school administration. Such units are a remnant of the "horse and buggy" days, and in the whole nation they result annually in a waste

[1] The merger or consolidation of school districts should not be confused with the merger or consolidation of schools. The consolidation of school districts is discussed here; the consolidation of schools is discussed at length in Chapter XVII.

of millions of dollars. In only the Southern states and in a few others are rational school districts found. In most states of the North and West at least nine-tenths of the school districts should be merged with others. In the early days, city schools were organized, financed, and administered by wards. It was early seen, however, that the whole city was a more practicable administrative unit than the city ward. Gradually it has come to be recognized that a larger unit for the administration of rural schools is more practicable than the one-teacher district, the township, or other small school district. Research and theory have not yet demonstrated what the size of the unit for the administration of rural schools should be, although the county is generally suggested as the most desirable unit. It is apparent, though, that because of the differences in topography, distance, and population density the county may be too large in certain instances and too small in others. In general, the size of the administrative unit should meet the following criteria:

1. The unit should be sufficiently large to permit the organization of a complete system of elementary and secondary schools on an efficient financial and pedagogical basis.[1] For the larger centers of population, provision should also be made for the organization of a system of junior colleges and terminal vocational schools.
2. It should be sufficiently large to make provision for an adequate administrative and supervisory personnel.
3. It should not be so large that the people would lose interest in the schools.

The board of education. — The schools of each school district in the United States are governed by a group of persons known variously as the board of education, the school board, the school committee, the board of school directors, or the board of school trustees. Such controlling boards represent the people of the school district in the administration of the schools; but, since education is a state

[1] Small administrative units are usually characterized by small, and frequently inefficient, schools; large administrative units, on the contrary, are usually characterized by larger and more efficient schools.

function, they represent the people of the whole state more than the people of the local district.

As would be expected, the features pertaining to the office of school board member are not the same in every state. There are, however, common veins running through the practices of the various states, and the tendency is for those practices to become more similar. The following tendencies are noted: (1) popular election, on a non-partisan ticket, of the holders of the office; (2) a longer term of office, for example, from three to five years; (3) a smaller number of members, for example, between five and nine; and (4) no salary, except perhaps a small per diem with a limitation on the number of days a year to ten or twelve. Because of the importance of the board of education in determining school efficiency, Chapter IV is entirely devoted to it.

The superintendent of schools. — Since its beginning in Providence, Rhode Island, in 1836, the superintendency of schools has become almost universal. Every school system, except the very small ones, employs a superintendent. The school systems which do not employ superintendents are almost always rural, and these usually have the supervision of a county superintendent. With the exception of county superintendents, which are still frequently elected on a political basis, the tendency everywhere is to elect superintendents on the basis of their administrative and technical competence.

The superintendent of schools is the most important educational officer, perhaps any public officer, in a community. He determines, more than any other person, the efficiency of the school system. If he is well qualified for his position, he will often be able to cause an efficient school system to emerge in spite of many handicaps; he will bring about this result by his ability to educate the board of education, school employees, and the public to his point of view. On the other hand, if he is not qualified, there is danger that the school system will mark time or even deteriorate. Since Chapter II

of this book is devoted entirely to the superintendent of schools he need not be further discussed on this point.

Other local administrative personnel. — In all, except the very small, school systems other administrative and supervisory employees are usually found. Attached to the office of the superintendent of schools, depending on the size and type of school system, are such administrative and supervisory officers as the business manager of schools and his staff, and assistant superintendents in charge of various activities of the school system. In charge of each local school is usually found a principal. The work of all these employees will be discussed in later chapters.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Would you recommend for this country a national system of education such as most foreign countries have? Why or why not?

2. Would you favor a federal department of education with a secretary of education in the president's cabinet? Why or why not?

3. What aid has your state received for education from the federal government? Has such aid resulted in any federal control of education? Explain. Is control a necessary corollary of support? Explain.

4. Would you favor the establishment of a national university to be supported by the federal government? Why or why not? If such a university were established, where should it be located? Why? Should it be a teaching university or for research only? Explain. What are the advantages of Washington, D.C., as a center for research?

5. How much state control of private schools do you believe there should be? Explain. How much control of such schools is there in your state today? Would you favor the abolition, the control or no control, of such schools? Explain. Account for the decrease in attendance in the private schools compared with the public schools.

6. How do you account for the fact that there is much more state control of education in the Eastern states than in those of other sections of the United States? How much state control of education do you favor? Does your state have that desired amount? Explain.

7. Characterize the chief state school official and his staff of your state as to official title, method of selection, salary, term of office, and powers and duties. What changes, if any, would you recommend? Why?

8. What type of state board of education, if any, does your state have?

Characterize it as to method of selection, number of members, term of office, salary, and powers and duties? What improvements, if any, are needed?

9. How do you account for the historic tendency to centralize educational functions? Point out some evidences of this tendency in your state.

10. What types of school districts are found in your state? How many of each type are there? Is the number becoming larger or smaller, and why? What changes in the number and types of districts would you recommend? Why?

11. What criteria should determine the size of school districts? Check the school districts of your state with these criteria and indicate any shortcomings which the districts have.

12. How do you account for the tenacity with which the older generation holds to the small district system for schools? Would the abolition of small districts tend to make the people lose interest in their schools? Explain.

13. Characterize the governing boards of school districts in your state as to such matters as method of selection, number of members, term of office, salary, and powers and duties. What changes, if any, would you suggest in the present statutes governing these matters? Why?

14. Account for the fact that state and county superintendents are frequently elected by popular vote. What method of selection would you recommend? Why?

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Chapter IV

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION AND ITS WORK [1]

THE POSITION OF SCHOOL BOARD MEMBER

Importance of position. — What the citizens of the next generation will be, the schools of today will largely determine, and what the schools are, boards of education chiefly determine; *ergo*, the importance of the position of school board member. To boards of education the people of every state have delegated, through the mandates of the legislature, the responsibility of seeing that the schools are administered according to law. Boards of education have been established in every school district, and every community in the United States is included in a school district. It can be truly said that there is no more important public service than that of acting as a member of a board of education, and there is no public service whose proper transaction requires greater businesss acumen, more patience and common sense, and greater devotion to a cause. Boards of education have under their direction not only the most important and the most technical public business, but also the largest public business. More money is spent in education, more people are employed in it, and more people are affected, either directly or indirectly, by it than is true of any other public undertaking.

Qualifications of board members. — What qualifications do school board members have, and what qualifications should

[1] The school-governing body is usually called a board of education. In a few states it is known variously as school board, board of school trustees, school committee, and board of school directors.

they have? Regarding actual qualifications we can do no better than to quote from the summary of a nation-wide study of the social composition of school boards. In that study G. S. Counts was able to secure data on 1654 school boards of the various types, such as rural, county, city, state, and college or university. The information secured from the rural boards was so meager that Counts did not deem it worth while to undertake to summarize it. On the other four types of boards the data were sufficiently complete to permit their summarization. Herewith are quoted the summary paragraphs on the county and city boards:[1]

> The typical county board of education in the United States is composed of six members. These members are elected by the people for a term of four years. One of the six members is a woman, who follows the occupation of housewife. Of the five men, three are farmers; one is a merchant; and one is a physician. Four of the members have children attending the public schools of the county. From the standpoint of formal education, they reflect somewhat favorably the attainments of the citizens of the community. Three of the members are products of the elementary school only; one has attended the secondary school; and two have enjoyed college or university privileges. In age, they exhibit a range of approximately thirty years, or a range from thirty-five to sixty-four years. The remaining four members are distributed between these two extremes at the ages of forty-one, forty-six, fifty, and fifty-six years. In length of service on the board, they likewise show considerable diversity. At the one extreme is a novice who is serving his first year, while at the other is a veteran who has already given fifteen years of service to the board. The others show tenures of office of two, three, five, and six years, respectively. On the average, these members devote approximately forty-six hours a year to board duties. For this service they receive financial compensation at the rate of three dollars a day.
>
> The typical city board of education in the United States is composed of six members. These members are elected at large for a term of three years. One of the six members is a woman, who follows the occupation of housewife. Of the five men, one is a merchant; one, a lawyer; one, a physician; one, a banker, manufacturer, or business executive; and one, a salesman, clerk, or laborer. Three of the members have children attending the public schools of the city. From the standpoint of formal educa-

[1] *The Social Composition of Boards of Education*, pp. 78–79.

tion, they constitute, in comparison with the city population as a whole, a highly selected group. But one of the members is a product of the elementary school only; two have attended the secondary school; and three have enjoyed college or university privileges. In age, they exhibit a range of twenty-six years, or a range from thirty-six to sixty-three years. The remaining four members are distributed between these two extremes at the ages of forty-two, forty-six, fifty, and fifty-four years. In length of service on the board, they likewise show considerable diversity. At the one extreme is a novice who is serving his first year, while at the other is a veteran who has already given fifteen years of service to the board. The others show tenures of office of two, three, five, and eight years, respectively. On the average, these members devote approximately fifty-one hours a year to board duties. For this service they receive no financial compensation.

In humorous vein, Mark Twain once said that "First, God practiced on idiots, then he created school boards." Although Twain's remark appropriately applies to a *few* school boards which we have known, the data of Counts' study, plus casual observation, indicate that the remark does not accurately describe the typical school board. In character, education, energy, personality, and other qualities, which are usually associated with stability and success, the members of the typical board of education are above the average of the people whom they represent; usually they are leaders in their communities and have the welfare of the schools wholly at heart.

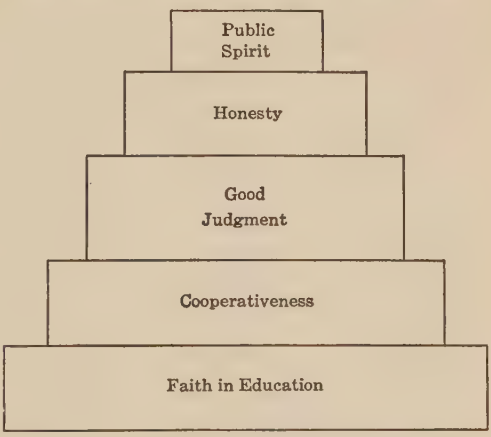


FIG. 4.—The Chief Qualifications Recommended for School Board Members.

What are desirable qualifications for a school board

member? In attempting an answer to this question, let it be said at the outset that there is no formula for expressing such qualifications; there is not such a formula for any type of worker, for that matter. Genius knows no invariable law; in fact, genius is usually characterized by deviations from accepted practice and law. "Nature never rhymes her children," Emerson once remarked, "nor makes two men alike." In general, though, persons who have been successful in their vocations and who have reputations for good judgment, honesty, fairness, co-operativeness, and public spirit should be sought. Persons who have children in school should, other things being equal, make the best board members; however, persons who have no children, or whose children have already graduated from school, often make excellent members. It is desirable for the members to have as much formal education as possible. A member who has had an elementary school, a high school, and a college education would probably be more familiar with the school machinery and the educational process and be more enthusiastic about the importance of education than a member who has not undergone such regimen of training. Still more, other things being equal, it would be best to have members whose vocations and interests are not the same. When their vocations and interests are the same, there is danger that the schools will become provincial or will be made subservient to one class, and that would never do; the schools are a creation and a possession of the whole public and not a tool of any group or bloc.

To state what school board members should *not* be is much easier than to state what they should be. Although it will never be possible to find a perfect candidate for any position, the following types of persons should be regarded with more or less skepticism when school board members are being chosen: those who have never made a success in any vocation; those who are dishonest; those who are associated with a textbook company or some other enterprise now doing,

or expecting to do, business with the schools; those who have low moral standards; those who are politically minded; those who have little education whether formal or informal; those who are more friendly to private schools than to public schools; those who cannot, or will not, work with other people; those who constantly seek the limelight through "big talk" and similar actions; those who want the position only as a stepping stone to some other position; those who cannot, or will not, regularly attend board meetings; those who will not defend what is right and are inclined to "pass the buck"; those who are controlled by a certain church, political party, or some other group and will not represent the interests of the whole community; those who are reactionary in their educational views, and also those who are revolutionary; those who "ride hobbies" too vigorously; those who are "penny pinchers," and also those who spend public money like "drunken sailors"; those who regard a public position only as an opportunity to provide their relatives and friends with positions and other contracts; and those who believe their function is to *run* the schools, rather than to see that the superintendent and the other employees run them properly. Of course, this list of undesirable traits of school board members is not complete.

Selection of board members. — Most students of school administration agree that school board members should be elected by popular vote at a non-partisan election; by non-partisan is meant that the politics of the candidates should not appear on the ballot or be a consideration in the campaign. Popular election is recommended because it permits the people to express themselves directly on school matters and gives the members whom they select a definite feeling of responsibility to the electorate. Appointment of school board members by mayors, councils, and similar agencies is frowned upon because of the danger of domination by selfish interests, political or otherwise.

In every community steps should be taken year in and year

out to assure that the highest type of citizens become candidates for, and are elected to, school board membership. Civic organizations and individual citizens of the community should urge persons of the highest type to become candidates for the school board and should support their candidacies by every proper means. Since great persons are usually modest, the best qualified persons will hesitate to become candidates without this urging. Members who are retiring from the board should also take steps to see that their successors are persons of high qualifications. The superintendent and other school employees have not only a right, but an obligation to urge well-qualified persons to become candidates for the board, provided their motive is to advance the interests of education and not to "feather their own nest" in some manner. Of course, school employees who support candidates with a selfish motive in mind are Judas Iscariots and are not worthy of holding a position of public trust.

In trying to secure the election of competent board members, the public-spirited elements of the community must be practical politicians, and they can always use fair means in being such. For example, when they see that any selfish group is uniting on a weak or questionable candidate and is likely to elect him, they should not divide their votes among several desirable candidates; rather they should attempt to secure the withdrawal from the race of all the desirable candidates, except the number to be elected, then vote for that number in opposition to the candidate of the selfish group.

As a rule, the office should seek the candidate, and with the best candidates for the school board that rule is usually followed. Candidates who make an active campaign, although they use entirely fair means, are often placed under the suspicion of having an "ax to grind," and such a suspicion is likely to handicap even the best candidate for this important position. The only platform which a good candidate needs is the sincere promise that he will work for the best educational interests of the whole community. When he makes a

promise to support the interests of a certain individual or group, particularly when the interests are selfish, he is certain to handicap the welfare of the whole community as well as his chances of election; if he should be elected, any selfish promises are certain to haunt him throughout his term of office if not throughout his life.

Campaigns for school board membership usually cost little or nothing, and this is as it should be, especially since the position does not pay a salary. Money needed for a campaign should be provided by individuals and groups which have no interest in the election except to secure the election of the best qualified candidate or candidates. Because the motive might be interpreted as selfish, contributions from school employees, contractors, textbook companies, or other individuals or concerns which do, or expect to do, business with the schools should not be offered, sought, or accepted.

Pay of board members. — All students of school administration believe that school board members should not be paid a salary. Moreover, the best board members do not desire to be paid; they regard the position as an opportunity for public service rather than as an opportunity for financial gain. In accordance with the views just expressed, only a few states make provision for such payment, and even then the payment is only a small amount, for example, one or two dollars per meeting, with a limit upon the number of meetings for which payment may be made each year; such payments are frequently made to rural members because they often live several miles from the place of board meetings and have the expense of transportation to them. When the state laws do not make specific provision for payment, it cannot be legally made.

POWERS AND DUTIES OF THE BOARD

The board and the laws. — It was remarked in the first paragraph of this chapter that boards of education have

been delegated the function of seeing that the schools of the community are properly administered. This does not mean that three, five, seven, or any other number of persons, who happen to constitute the school board of the community, "own" the schools and can run them irrespective of the wishes and the orders of their constituents. School board members are merely public servants who have been selected to carry out the wishes and the orders of their constituents in accordance with the laws of the state.

It should be reiterated that the source of all powers and duties of school board members and all school employees is the *state*, not the school district. Making provision for education is everywhere regarded as an obligation of the state. That the state has this responsibility is shown by the state constitution, the hundreds of statutes, and the dozens of decisions of local, state, and federal courts. From almost the time of the first settlements, the state has assumed this responsibility; it has assumed it because of the belief that education is the foundation and the framework of a democratic government, hence cannot be left to the whims of any individual or of any community. Democracy requires that the educational desires of individuals and communities be considered, but that they be considered in relation to the needs of the whole state.

Although the state, through its department of education, maintains general supervision and control of the schools, it has delegated most details concerning their administration to counties, cities, villages, townships, and other local school districts. These powers and duties have been delegated by the state legislatures which the people of every state elect to make the laws. School boards should regard themselves as agents of the state for carrying out the educational policies of the state; if they are also responsible to the people of the local community, it is only because the state has delegated to the people of the local community a certain amount of the responsibility for education. The state has

the power either to add to or to subtract from that power at any time; the tendency everywhere has been toward subtracting from the power, and it should continue.

The school laws of each state are recodified and published every few years by the state department of education; they usually appear under the title of "School Laws" or "School Code." Since legislatures make many changes in the school laws at every session, recodification and publication of the school laws should be made much more frequently than is done at present. Every school office should have a copy of the latest edition of the school laws and should follow them in letter and in spirit. A copy of the publication may be secured, usually free of charge, by applying to the state department of education.

On many matters which the board of education must consider, the laws are silent and the board must follow its best judgment, that is, use its discretion. Court decisions indicate that the board may feel secure in exercising its discretion to advance the educational interests of the community so long as the power is not abused. However, there is often some doubt about the legal rights of the board; therefore, before making decisions which have an uncertain legal basis, the board should consult its legal adviser. Many of the large school systems employ an attorney on full-time or part-time basis; most states, though, stipulate that the county prosecuting attorney, the city solicitor, or another legal official shall advise school boards free of charge. *Legal* advice, though, should not be confused with *educational* advice; an attorney should be requested to give legal advice, not educational advice. Educational advice should be secured from such persons as superintendants of schools who have been trained in professional education.

May the members of a school board be held personally liable for their acts? In every state there have been many court decisions on this question. These decisions have usually agreed that school board members, acting within the scope

of their duty, can be held personally liable only for public injuries resulting from acts which have corrupt motives; they cannot be held liable for mistakes of judgment in interpreting the law. Whether a school board had a corrupt motive in making a decision is, of course, always a question for the courts to decide.

The administrative trinity. — The administration of a school system requires the performance of three functions, namely, the *legislative*, the *executive*, and the *inspectorial*. The legislative function is that of formulating and adopting policies, of enacting legislation. Examples of policy making are: the decision of whether to establish evening schools; whether to teach agriculture in the high school; whether to have a salary schedule for school employees; whether to adopt a single-salary schedule; whether to make the length of the school term eight, or nine, months; whether to establish the junior high school organization; and whether to bar married women from teaching positions. The legislative function should be performed by the board of education.

Boards of education, however, should not enact legislation, should not make policies, without the recommendations of their professional experts, particularly the recommendations of their chief executive officer; namely, the superintendent. No legislation should be enacted except on the basis of complete information, and, left to their own initiative and devices, boards of education find it difficult to secure this information. One of the chief functions of the superintendent of schools is to secure, to organize, and to present to the board such information as it may desire or need. In a well-administered school system not much, if any, legislation will be enacted by the board of education which has not been recommended by the superintendent.

The execution of the policies should be left wholly to the professional experts of the board of education — that is, the superintendent, the principals, business officials, teachers, and other employees. Boards of education do not have the

time to execute policies, nor do they usually have the acumen necessary for such work; they have not been prepared to execute school policies. The function of a board of education is *not to run the schools but to see that they are run.* Boards of education should not attempt to execute policies — to *run* the schools — any more than a board of directors of a factory or corporation should attempt to *run* such private business; nor any more than the board of directors of a hospital should attempt to select the nurses and physicians, to prescribe diets for patients, and to perform similar functions of an executive and technical nature.

After legislation has been enacted by the board of education and has been duly executed by the professional experts of the board, the task remains to ascertain how well the legislation is working and how well it has been executed. This is the inspectorial, or appraisal, function, and it should be exercised primarily by the board of education. The board will exercise it primarily on the basis of definite information which it secures from its executive officers. It is the function of the superintendent to enlighten the board on all school matters, for example, on how efficiently the various subjects are being taught, how well each teacher and other employee is doing his work, and how well a certain material is functioning. When such information is in the hands of the board of education, it may, if it is deemed desirable, modify its legislation or enact entirely different legislation.

In order that friction and the resultant waste may be avoided, a statement of the proper functions of the board of education should be included in the rules and regulations of the board. The provisions in the Hamtramck, Michigan, rules and regulations cover this matter excellently and for that reason the most pertinent paragraphs are quoted herewith:

> The duties of the board of education shall be conceived as responsibility for: (1) interpreting the needs of the community and the requirements of the professional organization; (2) developing policies in accordance

with the law and in accordance with the educational need and wishes of the people; (3) selecting the executive; (4) approving means by which professional agents and agencies may make these policies effective; (5) furnishing financial means which provide physical and educational conditions by which organized activity may be carried on; (6) appraising the efficiency of the agents and of the service rendered in terms of their value to the community; and (7) keeping the people intelligently informed of the purpose, value, conditions, and needs of public education within the community.

The board of education is the legal instrument through which the legislative and appraisal functions are exercised. The executive function shall be delegated fully and completely to the superintendent of schools who shall be charged with the responsibility for devising means and ways of executing efficiently, and ever more efficiently, the educational policies adopted by the board of education.

The board of education shall be a deliberative body operating in the best interests of the state and of the children of Hamtramck upon the basis of the best available objective evidence. The board of education, meeting as a deliberative body, shall require of its executive complete and constant information regarding the state of the schools and the levels of instructional efficiency.

RULES AND REGULATIONS

Advantages of. — Recent investigations have shown that less than half the boards of education in cities have adopted a set of rules and regulations outlining the administrative procedures and relationships of the schools. Obviously such rules and regulations exist infrequently in the cities — the communities in which the more progressive schools are found — and they are almost as scarce as dodos in the town, village, and rural school systems. A good set of rules and regulations should be adopted by every school system, whether large or small, for the conduct of its business. State departments of education could make a contribution to local school administration by formulating a set of suggested rules and regulations which local school officials might adapt to the needs of their schools. A set of rules and regulations would have the following advantages:

1. Each employee would know his functions, and responsibility could, therefore, be definitely placed. The result would be less muddling, less

meddling, and less characterized by that administrative pastime commonly known as "passing the buck." Much of the friction which now exists between boards of education and superintendents of schools, between educational and business employees — in brief, between all employees — would be obviated.

2. Such rules and regulations would especially aid new employees, and particularly would they aid employees who have recently entered the organization from another community. Without a guide such as rules and regulations afford, new employees often grope in the dark. Rules and regulations would immediately inform such employees of their powers and duties. Still more, they would facilitate the training of inexperienced employees.

The chief principles which should be kept in mind in formulating and using such rules and regulations are the following:

1. They should be formulated by the board of education and the superintendent of schools with the co-operation of representatives of the various types of school employees.

2. They should be in meticulous accord with the laws of the state and with the provisions of any local charter.

3. They should be *written.* Ideas best project themselves into reality when crystallized in written language. Verbal rules and regulations are not likely to be well formulated; moreover, they are likely to be forgotten both by those who make them and by those for whose guidance they are made. In the larger school systems the rules and regulations are usually printed, and in the smaller systems they are usually mimeographed.

4. They should state clearly the general functions of the various employees. However, they should not be so rigid as to make it impossible for employees to exercise their individuality when to do so would result in greater efficiency.

5. They should be amended as the need arises. Any changes effected should be made known to all employees concerned.

6. They should be followed. Rules which are archaic and useless should be repealed. Those which have not been repealed should be enforced. Any other practice breeds disrespect for law.

An excellent procedure to follow in securing a set of rules and regulations is for the chairman or president of the board to appoint a committee for this purpose. This committee should have on it at least one board member and the superintendent of schools; if the rules and regulations are made for

principals, teachers, janitors, bus drivers, and other employees, each of these groups should also be represented by at least one of its members. When the work of the committee has been finished it should make its recommendations to the board, which alone has the power to amend the rules and regulations and to adopt them.

Suggestions on what a set of rules and regulations should contain may be secured from an examination of other sets. The following set of Huron, South Dakota, is excellent on school board and superintendent relationships and might well be patterned after, especially by small school systems:

1. The meeting of the board of education for organization will be held the last Friday of May of each year. It shall be called to order by the clerk. The board shall then elect a president, a vice-president, and a clerk for the ensuing year.

2. The regular meetings of the board shall be held at the office of the superintendent on the last Friday of each month.

3. The order of business shall be as follows:
   a. Reading and approval of minutes.
   b. Claims and accounts.
   c. Communications.
   d. Reports and recommendations of the superintendent.
   e. Unfinished business.
   f. New business.
   g. Reports of special committees.

4. Roberts' *Rules of Order* shall be used in conducting the business of the board.

5. The president shall preside at all meetings of the board, appoint all special committees not otherwise ordered, and perform such other duties as are provided by law. In the absence of the president from any meeting, the vice-president shall preside.

6. Special committees of the board, appointed by the president, unless otherwise ordered, shall investigate and act for the board in such ministerial matters as may be assigned; but no standing committees shall be appointed. If so ordered, such special committees shall report to the board in writing in such manner and at such times as ordered by the board.

7. At the regular meeting in January, or at any regular meeting when there is a vacancy in the superintendency, the board shall elect a superintendent of schools for a three-year term, which shall begin on August

first, following the election, or on such other date as may be determined by the board.

8. At any regular meeting of the board any rule or regulation governing the schools may be enacted, amended, or repealed by a majority vote of the full board membership, provided that notice of such action shall have been given at the last regular meeting preceding.

9. The superintendent is the executive officer of the board of education for the management of the schools.

10. He shall attend the regular and special meetings of the board and shall be a member of, and advise with, all special committees of the board.

11. He shall prepare and submit to the board rules and regulations for the management of the schools.

12. He shall investigate the need of, and recommend to the board, provision for school facilities in the school system.

13. He shall, when called upon, give written opinions to the board or its special committees of all matters to be acted upon, and make written reports of the general condition of the schools, with such recommendations for their improvement as require action of the board. At the regular meeting in July, he shall submit an annual report.

14. He shall recommend to the board, from time to time, principals, supervisors, and teachers, and the other employees of the school system as there is need of such employment during the year, and the board shall elect no school employee not recommended by the superintendent. On or before the last Friday of March each year, the superintendent shall submit the names of persons recommended to be appointed or reappointed for the ensuing year.

15. He shall recommend to the board for approval important changes in courses of study and textbooks to be used by the schools.

16. He shall have power to suspend any pupil from the schools whenever in his judgment the best interests of the school demand such action, such suspension to be reported to the board at its next regular meeting.

17. He shall prepare an annual budget showing by departments appropriations necessary to meet the estimated needs of the ensuing school year, and submit the same to the board for approval on or before the regular meeting in June each year.

18. He shall within the limits of the detailed annual budget for the year, duly approved by the board, have power to direct expenditures and purchases, the board auditing all bills and accounts at each regular meeting, and at the close of each semester in January and June checking all expenditures in terms of the annual budget.

19. He shall recommend to the board transfers from one budget item to another as conditions may require.

20. In the interest of efficient administration he shall have power to decide all matters of detail purely ministerial and administrative that may arise, concerning which no specific provision is made in these rules and regulations. All important decisions of the superintendent as herein authorized must be reported by him to the board not later than the first regular meeting of the board following such decisions.

An organization chart. — Supplementing its rules and regulations, or as a part of them, every school system, whether large or small, should prepare an organization chart showing

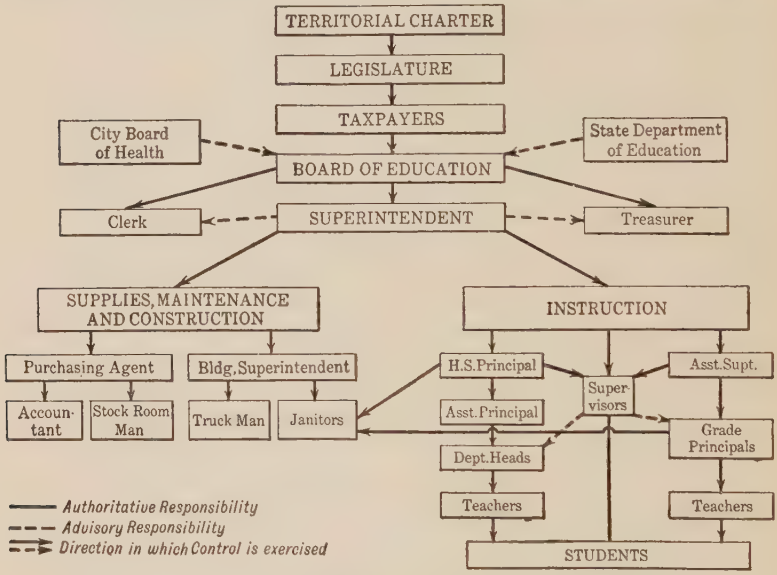


FIG. 5.—A Sample Organization Chart for a School System.

administrative relationships and the various parts of the school organization. The larger the school system the greater the need for an organization chart. Such a chart can be of great service in constructing a new administrative organization for the school system or in improving the organization already in existence. It makes it possible to see in outline the whole school organization. By means of it, administrative incongruities such as multiple-executive direction, overlapping of authority, and gaps in authority can be more readily detected.

Figure 5 shows an organization chart for a medium-sized school system which has the *unit* type of organization.[1]

UNIT VERSUS MULTIPLE ORGANIZATION

Definition. — One of the most discussed topics in school administration during recent years has been the relative efficacy of the unit and the multiple types of school organization; these types are defined herewith. In the *unit* type of organization one individual — the superintendent — administers in person, or directs the administration of, the whole organization; under this type of organization all employees, whether educational or business, are *subordinate* to the superintendent. In the *multiple* type certain functions — usually the business functions — are administered by one or more executives who are *co-ordinate* with the superintendent of schools; where this type of organization obtains it is usually explained on the basis that the administration of both educational and business phases of the schools is too large a task for one person to perform and on the additional basis that superintendents are incompetent to direct the business affairs even though they might have time.

Advantages of unit type. — Space will not permit the giving of a summary of the extensive research that has been made on the relative efficacy of the two types of organization. It is sufficient to say that the tendency everywhere in both theory and practice is toward the adoption of the unit type and away from the multiple type. The advantages of the unit type may be summarized as follows:

1. It provides for centralized control, and such control is considered to be, at least in all other fields of endeavor, a first principle of efficient management. Try to imagine a company of soldiers having more than one captain, or an industry having more than one superintendent!

[1] For samples of organization charts of other school systems, and for a discussion of the advantages of *unit* control versus *multiple* control, the interested reader is referred to the author's *The Business Administration of a School System*, pp. 13, 14, 17, 19, 26.

2. It tends to prevent the development of friction, which frequently occurs in multiple-headed organizations. It secures co-ordinated effort.

3. It guards against the waste resulting from duplication of effort, which frequently exists in multiple-headed organizations.

MEETINGS OF THE BOARD

Purpose of meetings. — The functions of a board of education cannot be legally performed except in a regular or a special meeting at which there shall be present a quorum of the board's membership; meetings are therefore held in order that the business of the board may be legally transacted. When a member is not in attendance at a meeting of the board, the courts have stated that his decisions have no more legal force than those of a person who is not a board member. Moreover, a member who undertakes to transact school business outside of a meeting is usually regarded by the other members as a busybody and a usurper of authority.

Executive versus open sessions. — In most states the laws prescribe that school board business cannot be transacted except at a meeting which is open to the public. Whether required by law or not, this policy should be followed because secrecy is likely to create suspicion on the part of the public; in a democracy the people desire "open covenants openly arrived at." It is known, of course, that few of the people ever attend board meetings, but the opportunity should always be afforded all of them by the board. When delicate situations are being considered, the board may meet in closed or executive sessions to hold preliminary discussions of the situations; final action and voting on all matters, though, should always take place in open meeting — in fact, they must thus take place to be legal. Although executive sessions are sometimes advisable, the holding of too many of them is likely to give the public the impression that the board is pursuing a public-be-shunned if not a public-be-damned policy; to give such an impression is sure to generate poor public relations.

Since board meetings should be open to anyone who desires to attend them, adequate publicity should be given to

their time and place. After each meeting it is also a good plan to give newspaper publicity to the items of business transacted at the meeting. These suggestions are particularly pertinent to the cities because they are more likely to have newspapers than the village and rural districts. Village and rural schools frequently have printed or mimeographed student newspapers, and these also are appropriate means of giving publicity to the decisions of the school board. After the meeting of the board the clerk, superintendent, or some other appropriate official or employee should be requested to supply each community newspaper and similar agencies of public information with a *written* account of all board decisions made at the meeting; to give only an oral account of such decisions is to risk inaccuracy of reporting.

Time and place of meetings. — The board should set a regular time and place for its meetings. In most states the statutes prescribe the frequency of meetings. Most boards find it possible to transact all school business in either monthly or semi-monthly meetings. Special meetings may, of course, be provided for when necessary. The time and place of regular meetings, and the procedure for calling special meetings, should be covered in the rules and regulations of the board, provided these matters are not decided, as they occasionally are, by the laws of the state. Following are the rules (slightly changed by the present author) of the St. Louis, Missouri, Board of Education governing these matters. These rules may be readily adapted to meet the needs of the individual school system.

Section I. The regular sessions of the board shall be held ——, at the ——, on the —— in each month at the hour of —— P.M. The board may adjourn its meeting in any regular session to a fixed time for the completion of unfinished business, and at such adjourned regular session it shall have the powers which it has at its regular session.

Section II. Special meetings may be called at any time by the president or by the clerk upon the written request of half or more members of the board.

In all cases of special meetings not less than 24 hours' written notice

stating the time of holding the meeting and business to be considered shall be given to each member, and, at the meeting thus called, no business shall be transacted other than that stated in the call; provided, however, that if all the members of the board shall, in writing, waive the notice above stated, then such special meeting may be held at any time.

Section III. At all sessions of the board a majority of the whole number elected shall constitute a quorum to do business.

Rules of order. — A procedure whereby the business to be transacted at a meeting of the board may be handled efficiently and expeditiously should be arranged. One excellent guarantee that the business will be thus handled is to see that a definite routine, or order of business, is established. An order of business saves time and gives greater assurance that no item of business will be forgotten during the meeting. Such order of business should be made a part of the rules and regulations of the board. Another guarantee to an efficient and expeditious conduct of the board's business is to formulate a definite parliamentary procedure to follow. The more important phases of this procedure should be made a part of the rules and regulations of the board. Herewith are quoted the rules of order (slightly adapted) of the St. Louis Board of Education, which may be readily modified to meet the needs of the individual school system:

Section I. The president, upon taking the chair, shall call the members to order, on the appearance of a quorum.

The order of business shall be as follows:

1. Reading of minutes of last session.
2. Election of officers or seating of new members (when required by law or the rules of the board).
3. Reading of letters and communications by their titles. If reading in full is requested, the president may direct the matter to be taken up as new business.
4. Reading of motions and resolutions for reference without debate.
5. Reports from the officers and committees of the board.
6. Unfinished business.
7. New business.
8. Motions to reconsider.

Section II. All communications and resolutions submitted to the board

for reference without debate shall be referred by the president to the appropriate officer or committee without motion, unless objection is made by a member of the board.

Section III. In all matters not covered by the rules of the board, parliamentary procedure shall be governed by the manual known as Roberts' *Rules of Order*.

Section IV. Every special committee shall be called upon for report by the president when its report is due, and any special committee failing to report at such time, or in the next two sessions following thereafter, shall be considered discharged, unless an extension of time is granted.

Section V. No person other than a member or officer of the board shall, unless by permission, be allowed to make any communication to the board, except in writing; and such permission must be unanimous.

Section VI. No motion shall be subject to debate until it has been seconded, and stated by the chair. It shall be reduced to writing at the request of any member of the board. When a motion has been made and seconded, the same may be withdrawn by the mover at any time before a vote has been taken on the same.

Section VII. When a question is before the board, no motion shall be received, except to adjourn, to lay on the table, to close the debate, to refer, to postpone indefinitely, to postpone to a certain time, to adopt a substitute or to amend; and these motions shall take precedence in the order above named; the first, second, and third shall be decided without debate, and the third by a two-thirds vote.

Section VIII. Whenever the motion to close the debate prevails, the mover of the proposition, or in case of a report, the chairman of the committee from which the report comes, shall have the privilege of addressing the board; and after his remarks, no more debate shall be in order.

Section IX. Any member may call for a division of the question when the same admits of it.

Section X. The laying of a motion on the table shall be construed as only affecting such motion, and not any other to which it may be subsidiary.

Section XI. When the board has decided to close the debate, the vote shall be taken first on the amendments that may be pending, and next on the main question.

Section XII. The president shall decide all questions of order, subject to an appeal to the board by any member. In case of appeal, the question shall be: Shall the decision of the chair be sustained? and, until it is decided, all debate upon the pending question shall be suspended. But decisions of the chair may be debated when they refer to the interpreta-

tion of rules or parliamentary law. Upon a tie vote, the chair shall stand sustained.

Section XIII. The reconsideration of a vote may be moved at the same session at which the vote was taken, by any member who voted with the majority; but such motion shall be decided at that or the next regular session, and the matter thus finally decided shall not be revived within a period of three months, unless by consent of a two-thirds majority of the board.

Section XIV. Every member present shall vote on all questions, unless excused by the board.

Section XV. The yeas and nays shall be called and entered in the minutes on all questions requiring for decision a vote greater than a majority of the members present, and on all other questions whenever demanded by a member of the board; and every member shall have the privilege of having his vote and reasons therefor recorded on any and every question, if he so requests. Any member may, however, have his explanation for his vote upon any question recorded in the official minutes, provided he so requests while the vote is being taken, or immediately after the result of the vote has been announced by the chair, and before the statement of a new question. Such explanation, however, shall not consume more than three minutes.

Section XVI. No member shall be allowed to give his vote on any question after the result has been announced by the chair, unless by unanimous consent; but any member may, after the announcement of the result of a vote by the chair and before the statement of a new question, call for a division.

Section XVII. When a member is about to speak on any question, he shall arise and address himself to the president, confine himself strictly to the point in debate, and avoid personalities.

Section XVIII. No member shall speak more than 10 minutes at any one time on any motion under discussion, nor more than once until all other members choosing to speak shall have spoken, nor more than twice to the same question, without consent of the board, nor more than 3 minutes in explaining his vote.

Section XIX. No member shall be interrupted while speaking, unless by a call to order. If a member be called to order, he shall immediately take his seat until the point is decided by the chair.

Section XX. No member shall leave the board before the close of the session without permission of the president.

Section XXI. When practicable, typewritten copies of all proposed business shall be furnished to the members of the board before the meeting at which action is to be taken thereon.

A file of untransacted business. — In order that no item of business may be forgotten during a meeting of the board of education, the superintendent should organize a file, or "tickler," system for business which should come before the board. It is a good plan to place on a separate index card, or sheet of paper, each item of business that needs to be brought to the attention of the board. Items of business which have not yet been disposed of should be kept in the *active* file; items which have been disposed of should be placed in the *inactive* file. Unless such a system is maintained, many items of business will not be transacted at all, or will not be transacted expeditiously.

Except in emergency cases, which often require immediate action by the board of education, no item of business, except that of a routine nature, should be presented by the superintendent to the board which he has not had time to study carefully and to organize for presentation. With the exceptions above noted, many superintendents will not present to their boards new business which they have not had in hand for at least a week; in applying this rule these superintendents insist that all school employees and other persons, who may want matters acted upon by the board of education, present such matters to the superintendent at least a week previous to the board meeting which is to consider it. Such procedure does much to forestall hasty action on the part of the superintendent and the board.

These suggestions presuppose that the superintendent will attend all meetings of the board of education. There is only one type of meeting from which the board might permit, or require, the superintendent to absent himself — the meeting at which the superintendent himself was a topic of discussion. The superintendent would not, of course, desire to intrude when such a thing as his re-election or salary was under consideration; for him to do so would usually, if not always, be in bad taste.

Dealing with petitions and delegations. — The right of petition is one of the cornerstones of a democratic govern-

ment; therefore, all such requests should be courteously received and carefully considered by the board of education. Unless the public interest requires an immediate decision, board action on any request should not be taken at the meeting at which the request is made. On most requests the board should instruct the superintendent to collect information on the request and to report it at a later meeting; when the requests are especially controversial, a special committee of the board might be appointed to work with the superintendent in collecting the information and in making a recommendation. Board members should not commit themselves on any request until they have received complete information on all sides of the question; the following of this rule is especially advisable because many requests have in mind the selfish interests of certain individuals or groups and not the welfare of the general public.

COMMITTEE ORGANIZATION OF BOARDS

Evolution of committees. — In the early history of boards of education, practically all boards organized themselves into various standing committees for the performance of their work. Thus, in those days, it was not uncommon to find a board, even of a small school system, organized into a dozen or more committees, such as the following: course of study, teachers, janitors, textbooks, library, salary, health and sanitation, finance, rules, audit, purchasing, repairs, insurance, supplies, buildings and equipment, public relations, legislation, and statistics. The tendency toward committee organization was probably an outgrowth of the large and unwieldy boards which were prevalent in the early history of education in this country.

During recent years, however, the size of boards of education has been decreasing, and with this decrease has come a decrease in the number of committees. This tendency is in accord with the best theory. In fact, there is almost unanimous agreement among the students of school administration

that there should be *no* standing committees. These students raise no objection to the appointment of *special* committees for specific purposes, but they recommend that these be automatically discharged as soon as their special project has been completed.

Disadvantages of committee organization. — The chief claim for the committee organization, of those persons who favor such organization, is that it makes certain members of the board definitely responsible for the study of a particular problem, or group of problems, and thus competent to advise the whole board. The chief argument advanced against the committee organization is that the members of the committees tend to forget that they are merely advisory, and undertake *legislative* and *executive* functions. In the following words, W. W. Theisen summarizes the investigations and conclusions of various students regarding the committee organization: [1]

1. There is no agreement among boards as to the number or the kind of committees. . . .
2. A large number of committees is to be attributed rather to the size of the board than to the amount of work to be done, merely as a way out of a dilemma . . . or to provide members with chairmanships. . . .
3. Committees tend to perform executive functions. . . .
4. The committee system fosters a divided rather than a centralized or coordinated form of organization. . . .
5. Committee policy tends to become board policy, the board as a whole being ignorant of the real work of each committee. . . .
6. The functions of committees overlap. . . .
7. Committees form a means of unnecessary delay and postponement of action. . . .
8. Committees permit of pernicious influence. . . .
9. A board of proper size needs only a few, if any, standing committees. . . .

MINUTES OF THE BOARD

Importance of. — The minutes of the board are the official record of its functioning. They constitute a record of all de-

[1] *The City Superintendent and the Board of Education*, pp. 35–36. Copyright by Teachers College, Columbia University.

cisions and actions of the board, and are therefore indispensable; in fact, they are everywhere required by law. They should be prepared in well-organized, accurate, clear, and otherwise usable fashion; moreover, they should be retained permanently, because it is occasionally necessary to refer to them many years later.

The minute book. — During recent years the loose-leaf minute book has largely supplanted the permanently bound book of former years. The chief advantage of the loose-leaf book is that it permits the writing of the minutes on the typewriter, thus enabling the making of several copies at once; moreover, the typewritten copy is more legible than a copy prepared by longhand. Sheets $8\frac{1}{2}'' \times 11\frac{1}{2}''$ or $8\frac{1}{2}'' \times 14''$ are a desirable size to use. These may be readily inserted in a binder of the proper dimensions.

Sample set of minutes. — Following is a set of minutes of one meeting of a board. Attention is particularly called to the marginal notes; such notes are helpful in preparing an index of the minutes. An index of the minutes serves the same function as the index of a book — it permits the ready finding of any information which is desired.

SAMPLE SET OF MINUTES

Winesburg, Ohio
September 4, 1940.

Roll call

The Winesburg board of education met in regular session at 7:30 P.M. at the school building with president Sam Smith presiding, and with the following members present: Oscar Clifton, Dayton Fertig, James Gray, Roger Sergel, and Sam Smith.

The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved.

Minutes approved

In accordance with the state law, they were signed by the president and attested by the clerk.

New Business

Moved by Gray and seconded by Fertig that the following bills be allowed as read and that orders be drawn on the depository for the same:

Dobson Evans Company, school supplies. Invoice 8/10/40 . . . . . $27.50

Bills approved

Ginn and Company, school textbooks. Invoice 8/16/40 . . . . . $88.14

Welch Company, laboratory supplies. Invoice 8/12/40 . . . . . 56.20

Dayton Power and Light Co., elec. service. Invoice 8/24/40 . . . . . 12.25

Total . . . $184.09

Votes: Clifton, yea — Fertig, yea — Gray, yea — Sergel, yea — Smith, yea. Result of vote: five, yea; none, nay. Motion declared carried.

Pay roll

The pay roll for the month of September was then presented, and it was moved by Sergel and seconded by Gray that the pay roll be allowed and that orders be drawn on the depository for the same.

Votes: Clifton, yea — Fertig, yea — Gray, yea — Sergel, yea — Smith, yea. Result of vote: five, yea; none, nay. Motion declared carried.

Supt. recommends purchase of supplementary readers

The superintendent gave a report on the number and condition of the supplementary-reading books in each of the elementary grades and recommended that the board purchase the following new books, the cost of which was estimated to be sixty-five dollars:

86 *Lincoln Readers*
40 *Silent Readers*

Moved by Gray and seconded by Sergel that the superintendent be instructed to order the books recommended.

Votes: Clifton, yea — Fertig, yea — Gray, yea — Sergel, yea — Smith, yea. Result of vote: five, yea; none, nay. Motion declared carried.

Adjournment

There being no further business to come before the board it was moved by Gray and seconded by Clifton that the board adjourn. Motion carried and the meeting was adjourned at 9:20 P.M.

Sam Smith, President
George Elser, Clerk

Reading the minutes. — If the reading of the minutes requires so much time that other important business cannot be transacted expeditiously, another plan for reading them may be provided. For example, the minutes of the previous meeting may be typewritten and a copy of them sent to each

member of the board a day or two before the impending meeting. The use of this plan would enable each member to read the minutes at his leisure, and at the next meeting the minutes could be approved "as read" unless there were corrections to make.

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S RELATION TO THE BOARD

Keeping the board informed. — School board members are generally laymen in educational matters. They have usually had no opportunity to study, in college or university, the literature pertaining to school administration, nor have most of them read pedagogical books or magazines. It is necessary, therefore, for the superintendent to do what he can to educate the board members on school matters. This education should be given surreptitiously, unless the board members happen to be conscious of their limitations and request his help in familiarizing themselves with their work. Such education cannot, of course, be given in a week, a month, or a year; on the other hand, the procedure usually requires years of time. The most discouraging aspect of the procedure is that as soon as the typical board member has gained a quantum of familiarity with his job he resigns, either volitionally or upon request, and a new member takes his place. The process of enlightenment must then be begun anew.

Unfortunately, and strangely, many school board members believe that the schools are, and should be kept, the same as when they were pupils. They insist upon improvements in all other phases of life, but they want to keep the horse-and-buggy days in education. They do not realize that the aims, subject matter, and methods of the schools have changed greatly; or, if they see a change, they believe that it has been for the worse rather than for the better. For example, the pupils of a few years ago were expected to memorize the alphabet as the first step in learning to read; today, many parents who learned to read by that method don't understand why their children, who have learned to read well by another

method, cannot say their A B C's. Moreover, many parents who attended schools which taught only the three R's ("readin', 'ritin', and 'rithmetic") cannot see any value in newer subjects such as industrial arts, home economics, music, commerce, agriculture, and health and physical education. Such practices are considered by many school board members, who have not kept up with changes in methods of teaching and in school subjects, as an evidence of weakness in the schools; often these new practices are called "fads and frills" by persons who do not know their merit.

The school board member should have the spirit of the learner, especially with respect to a desire to increase his knowledge of present, new, and better school practices; if he does not have this desire he cannot give the best services to his community; if he has the desire, he cannot keep from improving his services to the schools and the community. To increase his knowledge of school practices he may use such means as the following and the superintendent of schools should assist him in utilizing such means:

1. Attend all meetings of the board and take an interested part in the deliberations.

2. Do his share of the work of all committees to which he may be assigned.

3. Read appropriate materials dealing with school administration. This reading may be found in books, magazines, and other sources, and should usually be suggested by the superintendent of schools. Many school board members read regularly one or more of the following magazines, which are devoted chiefly to problems of school administration: *American School Board Journal; Nation's Schools; School Executive;* and *School Management.* Many members also read the *Journal of the National Education Association* and the magazine of the state education association. Many enterprising superintendents of schools, being desirous of enlarging the fund of information of their board members, have presented each member with an annual subscription to one of these magazines. In addition to the aforementioned magazines, there are many other excellent pedagogical magazines, and board members will occasionally have the time to read one or more of these. Moreover, there are many books dealing with school administration, and board members would find it profitable to

peruse some of these. Often the superintendent can do a good turn by lending books from his private library to the board members; this suggestion is made in spite of the old adage to the effect that "the secret of keeping a book is not to lend it."

4. Visit schools both in his own community and in other communities. One of the most helpful steps which new board members could take would be to request the superintendent to guide them on a tour of the local schools. Such a tour would be especially helpful to those board members who have not visited schools since they were pupils many years ago.

5. See that the superintendent makes an annual report as well as many informal reports on the work of the schools. One of the chief duties of the superintendent is to provide such information to the board, and a superintendent who does not do so should have a black mark placed against his record. Needless to say, such reports should be read by board members.

6. Attend conventions of school board members and of school employees. There is now a national organization of school boards and in addition there are many state, regional, and county organizations of them.

In keeping the members of the board informed about local school affairs, the superintendent will find one of his most important functions. This duty is important because the information which the members of the board of education receive, or already have, determines the policies of the school system. Unless such information is accurate and complete, the policies adopted are not likely to be the best, and the schools will accordingly suffer.

In addition to giving much information orally to his board members, it is a good plan for the superintendent to provide each board member with a loose-leaf notebook in which there is placed from time to time material of interest to board members. Following are some materials which might appropriately find a place in such a notebook:

1. The rules and regulations of the board.

2. An organization chart showing the administrative relationships of the staff members of the school organization.

3. A map of the school district showing the population served by the several school buildings.

4. The minutes of the board dating back six months or a year.
5. The monthly financial statements and the annual financial statement of the board.
6. Special reports of the superintendent, and other officers, on school affairs.
7. Copies of laws enacted by the current legislature.

Getting along with the board. — Unless there is good will and co-operation between the superintendent and the board of education, the administration of the schools is sure to suffer; moreover, personal relations are likely to be placed under stress, and that usually results in a loss to personal efficiency. If the superintendent cannot get along with his board, he will eventually, probably very soon, lose the opportunity to serve it; in consequence he will lose his opportunity to accomplish things for the school system, and that is the most unfortunate thing of all.

There must be an inclination on the part of both the superintendent and the board to "give and take"; each must respect the views of the other, and neither must impugn the motives of the other. These matters should be particularly enjoined upon the superintendent, because he is an employee of the board and his tenure is dependent upon the good will of the board. The superintendent must be circumspect of his personal relations with his board, and, even though the members may have many shortcomings and idiosyncrasies, he should be charitable with them and ever realize that no one is perfect.

Above all, the superintendent should keep in mind that he is not omnipotent. He should not develop the point of view that he is always right and his board is always wrong. When the board fails to approve one of his recommendations, which it will do occasionally or often, he should not consider this a personal affront and Achilleslike "sulk in his tent." Win or lose, he must be "a good sport." When one of his recommendations is not accepted, he should seriously question whether the recommendation was *really* good, or whether it was

presented to the board in the most convincing way; reflection upon these matters will frequently show the superintendent that he is more at fault than the board; then and there he should resolve to do better next time.

Fortunate is that superintendent whose board of education and community always support him and give him his opportunity to advance the educational interests of the community. However, there have been few superintendents, particularly if they have had many years of service, who have had careers so blissful. There are few superintendents who, although they have done their best, have not met situations which made it necessary for them to consider the wisdom of moving to another position. Although circumstances alter all cases, a superintendent should seldom remain in a position until he is "kicked out"; before that comes to pass, he should try to foresee the "handwriting on the wall" and secure another position. He should consider taking this action for the good of the school system as well as his own welfare. It is a strange complex which makes one desire to remain in a position when the evidence shows that he is not wanted.

Avoidance of board factions. — Permanent divisions or factions are frequently found in school boards and they are always harmful to the welfare of the schools. They prevent complete co-operation which is necessary if the schools are to be the most efficient. They result from innumerable incidents, many of which are minor and all of which could and should be avoided. They result from such matters as the selection of a school site, the community use of school buildings, the views of a school official or employee, the awarding of a contract, and the abandonment of a school; in fact, they may result from any problem of the school or community. They result more frequently from the political affiliations of board members than from any other cause; in fact, in hundreds of districts the school board is divided upon a political basis and makes all appointments of employees and all contracts on that basis.

Although there are certain to be differences of opinion among all intelligent board members, these differences should not be permitted to lead to bad blood and continuous fighting among the members. Each board member and the superintendent can help to prevent the formation of such factions by employing a spirit of democracy in all discussions and decisions. This spirit demands that each member co-operate with all other members in determining all aims and procedures; it requires that the majority deal fairly with the minority and that the minority deal fairly with the majority. When factions exist, each board member and the superintendent should appoint himself a "committee of one" to serve as a peacemaker. School officials who will not co-operate are guilty of using non-democratic procedure, hence of setting a bad example for the citizens of today and tomorrow; fortunately, the public soon loses patience with such servants and casts them out of office.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What legal qualifications, if any, are required for school board membership in your state? What legal qualifications, if any, would you recommend?

2. How are school board members in your state selected? How are vacancies filled? Compare the merits of the following methods of selection: popular election; appointment by the mayor, judge, or council; selection by the old members of the board.

3. How may good candidates for the school board be encouraged to run for the office? In a popular election of school board members, when, if ever, should the superintendent "take sides"?

4. The mayor of a large city recently appointed to vacancies on the board of education representatives of each of the large racial groups in that city. Can his policy be justified? Why or why not?

5. How many members for a board of education would you recommend? Why? Would the size of the school system make any difference in the number of board members to be recommended? Explain.

6. For what length of term are school board members in your state selected? What length of term would you recommend? Why?

7. What pay, if any, do school board members in your state receive? What pay, if any, would you recommend? Explain.

8. How do you explain the fact that factions so frequently develop in school boards? What may the superintendent do to prevent such factions from forming?

9. Assume that you have the multiple type of organization in your school system and that it appears to be working well. Would you recommend a change to the unit type? If so, how would you proceed to secure the adoption of your recommendation?

10. Assume that your school system is a typical system and does not have a set of rules and regulations. How would you secure the approval of your board of the idea of formulating a set?

11. Assume that you have been elected superintendent of schools in a community whose board of education has been accustomed to "running the schools." How would you proceed to exercise the rightful functions of a superintendent?

12. Should school board meetings be open to the public? What exceptions, if any, would there be to the general rule which you suggest?

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PART II

Administration of Instructional Employees

Chapter V

SELECTION AND TENURE OF TEACHERS [1]

NECESSITY FOR PROPER SELECTION

Importance of excellent teachers. — Of the multifarious, varied, and difficult tasks of administering the schools there is none whose proper performance begets greater benefits for those for whom the schools exist — namely, the pupils — than the selection of a competent teaching personnel. As is the teacher, so is the school is a time-worn truism. The teacher primarily determines whether the school will be efficient or inefficient. Compared with teachers, such things as buildings, equipment, and supplies, though they should never be neglected, are of secondary importance. It would be better for the children to attend school in hovels, granted that the hovels were comfortable, safe and sanitary, there to be instructed by competent teachers, than to attend school in million-dollar palaces, there to be under the tutelage of persons of inferior qualifications. Brains, not bricks and mortar, make an efficient school. James A. Garfield once defined a university as "Mark Hopkins at one end of a log and a student at the other end." His definition does not say, but it may be confidently surmised that Garfield would not have insisted upon a certain kind of log for the altar of instruction. What he was trying to do in his definition was to emphasize the indispensability of an excellent teacher. Garfield's remark applies with equal cogency to elementary and sec-

[1] Most of the suggestions of this chapter are also pertinent to the selection of principals, supervisors, and other educational employees the same as teachers.

ondary school education; in fact, to the lower grades of the school organization the remark applies with particular cogency. The younger the pupil the more he must depend upon his teacher for help and guidance; often the more mature pupils will learn in spite of poor teaching. Cogently and in inimitable style Henry Van Dyke writes of the "unknown teacher":

> Sing the praise of the unknown teacher. Great generals win campaigns, but it is the unknown soldier who wins the war. Famous educators plan new systems of pedagogy, but it is the unknown teacher who directs and guides the young. He lives in obscurity and contends with hardship. For him no trumpets blare, no chariots wait, no golden decorations are decreed. He keeps the watch along the borders of darkness and makes the attack on the trenches of ignorance and folly. Patient in his daily duty, he strives to conquer the evil powers which are the enemies of youth. He awakens sleeping spirits. He quickens the indolent, encourages the eager, and steadies the unstable. He communicates his own joy in learning and shares with boys and girls the best treasures of his mind. He lights many candles which, in later years, will shine back to cheer him. This is his reward. Knowledge may be gained from books; but the love of knowledge is transmitted only by personal contact. No one has ever deserved better of the republic than the unknown teacher. No one is more worthy to be enrolled in a democratic aristocracy, "king of himself and servant of mankind."

Difficulty of dismissing incompetent teachers. — Moreover, the best qualified teachers should be selected, because it is easier and more pleasant to hire competent instructors than it is to "fire" the incompetent. Often an imbroglio is created for the administration when a teacher is dismissed. Some of the bitterest school fights — fights which have left their scars on the community for years — have resulted from the dismissal of teachers. The use of circumspection when teachers are employed will save the schools, and particularly the school officials, from the embarrassment which results from the dismissal of incompetent teachers. There is no task which a sympathetic, intelligent, and conscientious school administrator abhors more than that of dismissing, or

recommending for dismissal, a teacher; it is his Gethsemane.

Self-reliance of excellent teachers. — Still more, competent teachers should be employed because they are more self-reliant than the incompetent. They do not need as much direction and supervision from the administrative and supervisory personnel. They send or bring fewer disciplinary problems to the principal and superintendent; they get along better with their pupils, patrons, and colleagues. Under a competent teaching staff a school or a school system practically runs itself. With such a staff, life for the school administrator is more blissful, because he is not required to wear himself out in straightening out difficulties and in "pouring oil on the troubled waters" — duties which are particularly wearing and tearing. Not being compelled to perform such undesirable chores, his time and energies are available for other and more important and pleasant school duties; then, administering a school or a school system becomes the great adventure. No greater joy can come to a school administrator than that induced by working with an intelligent, energetic, self-reliant, and loyal teaching corps.

WHO SHALL SELECT

Advantages of superintendent selection. — The first principle to be followed in teacher selection is that those persons who are the most competent to judge qualifications should have the responsibility for selecting. Persons who have made a special study of school administration, and particularly of one of its branches — the teaching personnel — are better qualified to perform this important function than persons who have not made such study. Because of his professional preparation, his educational experience, and especially because of the position of educational leadership which he holds, the superintendent of schools, with the co-operation of his principals and other administrative co-workers, should be delegated the function of selecting all teachers; it

would be advisable to have such delegation made a matter of written record in the rules and regulations of the board. In fact, to give the superintendent this function by state law would be a big forward step for education; a few states have already taken this step.

Fortunately, the practice, everywhere prevalent in the early days, of having the school board members select the teachers without securing the recommendations of the superintendent has almost passed into limbo. In most of the city school systems there is hardly a vestige of such earlier practice. In fact, most city boards of education, in their rules and regulations, have delegated this function to their superintendents, and they will not entertain candidacies, but send all such to the superintendent. It is only in some of the back-country rural districts, and the few remaining "politically" governed city school systems, that boards of education still select the teachers.

Disadvantages of school board selection. — The ill effects upon the schools when school boards select the teachers are not difficult to see. Although he be conscientious, honest, and desirous of doing the right thing by the schools, the typical school board member has not had the preparation requisite for judging teacher qualifications. He is as much handicapped in selecting teachers as would be the superintendent of schools if he stepped out of his rôle and undertook to select the physicians and nurses for a hospital, or to run the private business of any board member for him. The task of instructing the youth is one of the most complex, important, and difficult of all tasks, and fortunate is the community whose school board is aware of this fact.

When they undertake to select teachers, school board members are likely to deem every teacher qualified. Too often, in their judgment, college and university diplomas and degrees have the same merit, and teaching certificates are all alike. To many of them, to paraphrase the words attributed to the Irishman: "One teacher is just as good as

another, perhaps a little better." Moreover, being human, they are likely to give undue weight to such factors as "good looks," local residence, personal acquaintance, and economic needs, and are often influenced by political considerations. Unconsciously they tend to forget the welfare of the pupil — for whom the school exists — and to consider only the interests of the beseeching candidate for a teaching position. Such board members, and teachers who play a similar game, would make a racket of the schools if they were not thwarted; because they are frequently not thwarted, the schools of many communities are loaded with all sorts of incompetents.

Summary of a desirable procedure. — It is recommended, therefore, that the board of education prescribe in its rules and regulations the procedure to be followed in teacher selection. Such rules and regulations should take as their foundation and framework the following principles, and it would be well to incorporate the first three into the statutes of the state:

1. That the superintendent of schools be delegated the duty of nominating all school employees to the board of education.
2. That all nominations thus made be accepted by the board unless disapproved by a majority vote. This principle gives the actual appointing power to the board, where it should reside if the board is to be more than a rubber stamp. Superintendents should *nominate* employees, but school boards should *appoint* them.
3. That when a nomination by the superintendent is disapproved, he shall make another or other nominations. When the board disapproves a nomination by the superintendent, it shall not substitute a candidate of its own selection.
4. That all candidates for positions be instructed to send their applications to, and to promote their candidacies wholly with, the superintendent and not to or with the board. The codes of ethics of many of the education associations enjoin this obligation upon teachers. Teachers who violate the rule should be automatically barred from consideration for a position.

DETERMINING THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS NEEDED

Need for economy. — Every school system, especially if it is growing and has a considerable size, should engage in a

continuous survey of its personnel; it should do this in order that it may know at all times whether the personnel is adequate. If there are too few teachers, the efficiency of instruction will not be at its highest; if there are too many, there will be financial waste. Several weeks before the incidence of the employing period the school officials should know how many new teachers will be needed to replace those who have resigned, retired, died, or are incapacitated, and how many will be needed to care for any increase in school enrollment or the work of any new departments. All such replacements and additions should be known early in order that provisions for financing them can be made in the next year's budget and in order that steps can be taken early in the spring or summer to secure the new teachers.

Pupil-teacher ratio. — It has long been known that the size of the class is the chief determinant of the per pupil cost of instruction and that the salary of the teacher is the largest single item in school expense. It is apparent, therefore, that if a teacher can be dispensed with, his salary amounting to several hundred dollars will be saved. Moreover, if the size of the class can be increased, the per pupil cost of instruction will be commensurately decreased. The writer knows a superintendent of schools, in a city of approximately thirty thousand population, who was able to dispense with the services of five teachers; he accomplished this by combining several small classes, with the result that a more rational pupil-teacher ratio was secured in all classes throughout the system. He did not request the resignations of these teachers — that would have been brutal administration; they resigned of their own free will and accord and their positions were permitted to go unfilled. Since $1800 was the median annual salary of the teachers dispensed with, an economy of $9000 was effected annually. The writer also knows a high school principal who by means of standardization of the teaching periods of all teachers at six periods per day was able to dispense with three teachers and thereby to effect

an economy of $5400 annually. It is worthy of note that the two school administrators who effected these economies believed that no loss in pedagogical efficiency resulted from decreasing the number of teachers. Both officials used the money saved to increase the salaries of the remaining teachers, which increases were in justice due and had been requested by the teachers.

In deciding upon the pupil-teacher ratio the school administrator should attempt to steer between the Scylla of so large a ratio that pupil inefficiency would result and the Charybdis of so small a ratio that financial inefficiency would obtain. It should be remembered also that too-large classes are likely to become "teacher killers." Just what the most desirable pupil-teacher ratio is, experimentation has not yet determined. Some school officials desire pupil-teacher ratios of 25:1; others, of 30:1; still others, of 35:1; while some deem that 40:1 or 45:1 are not undesirable ratios. All the school accrediting agencies, such as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, have regulations on the size of classes and the total professional load of teachers, and they must, of course, be followed by all member schools.

Because of the recent tendency for elementary school enrollment to decrease, the size of classes in the elementary school has decreased slightly. In both junior and senior high schools, on the other hand, the size of classes has increased, especially in the urban communities. Classes tend to be larger in the larger cities than in the smaller cities and the rural districts. A recent investigation shows that in cities over 2500 population the average size of classes was 30 pupils in kindergartens, 34 pupils in elementary schools, 33 pupils in junior high schools, and 30 pupils in senior high schools.[1] Contrary to present practice, best theory holds that classes should be smaller in the lower grades

[1] *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* (March, 1940), Vol. XVIII, p. 63.

than in the upper ones; pupils in the lower grades need more individual attention than those in the upper grades.

An optimum practice in these matters, as in most procedures in education, cannot be easily determined and therefore it cannot be rigidly standardized. Because of so many variable factors, and especially because of the human element which must always be considered, a science of education can never provide school officials and employees with inviolable rules; common sense will continue to be necessary to adapt the general rule to the specific situation. Experimentation would probably demonstrate that the number of pupils which a teacher can instruct most effectively is determined by various factors such as the qualifications of the teacher, the method of teaching used, the amount and character of supplies and equipment with which the teacher has to work, the amount of extracurricular activities which must be supervised, and the grade, subject, and intelligence level of the pupils. Here are unworked, yet fruitful, fields for research.

The few experiments which have been made upon the problem of the relative efficiency of large and small classes show that small classes are pitifully little more efficient than large ones. The most extensive of such experiments was that of P. R. Stevenson, who found that in classes which had twice as many pupils as other classes and in which all other factors, such as the qualifications of the teachers, the length of the recitation period, the character of equipment, and the intelligence of the pupils were the same, the pupils made an average mark per semester of 76 per cent, while the pupils in the small classes made an average mark per semester of 77 per cent. In Stevenson's experiment, which was carefully controlled, sixteen pairs of classes in various subjects were included. The average number of pupils in the large classes was 39, and the average number in the small ones was 18. Thus, in spite of the fact that the small classes had less than half as many pupils as the large, they did only one

per cent better than the large.[1] It is worth noting that practically all other experiments on the same problem have secured results of the same tenor as Stevenson's experiment.

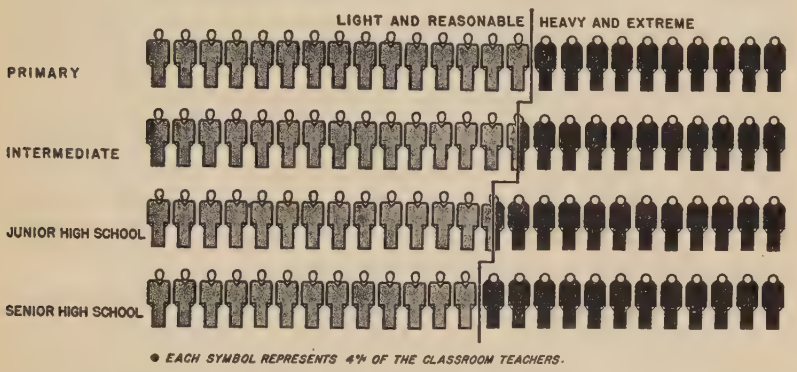


FIG. 6. — Appraisal by Classroom Teachers of Their Professional Loads. (From *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, March, 1940, Vol. XVIII, p. 62.)

Having the knowledge that small classes are little more efficient than large, and that classes containing, for example, 20 pupils have a per pupil cost of twice as much as classes having 40 pupils, what action shall the school administrator take? Is a one per cent advantage in pedagogical efficiency in favor of small classes worth the expenditure of $20, $30, or $40 extra per pupil? In order to secure financial economy, shall the size of classes be increased? is the question which confronts the school administrator.

In attempting to answer the foregoing question, two warnings should be heeded. The first is that there is undoubtedly a point beyond which the size of classes cannot be increased without bringing a decrease in pupil efficiency and a "killing load" to teachers. Experimentation has not yet determined that point. The second warning is that the results of the experiments which have been cited show merely *what is;* they do not claim to demonstrate *what ought to be.*

[1] P. R. Stevenson, *Smaller Classes or Larger*, p. 107.

The conclusion is inescapable that the results of these experiments are a sad commentary on the way in which instruction is offered; they evince that teaching is being performed largely in a mechanical way and that *groups* of pupils rather than *individual* pupils are the center of the teacher's attention. Rather than for school administrators to regard the results of the experiments on class size as a suggestion or a license to increase the size of classes, it would be more fruitful for them to engage in a campaign to secure teaching which would center attention upon the individual pupil; if such teaching were secured, small classes would attain in practice their theoretical advantages.

Total professional load. — Many factors have contributed to an increase in the total professional load of teachers during recent years. Among the more prominent of these factors are the increased emphasis upon individual instruction and guidance, greater co-operation with the home and with community agencies, a larger amount of teacher participation in school administration, and more supervision of extra-curricular activities. Investigations have recently shown that in addition to nearly 30 hours a week in classroom teaching, secondary school teachers devote an average of 10 hours a week to out-of-class activities related to their work. Elementary school teachers teach slightly more than 30 hours per week and devote approximately 9 hours per week to out-of-class activities pertaining to their work.[1] As will be seen from a glance at Fig. 6, nearly one-half of the teachers consider their professional loads too heavy.

It is apparent that the total professional load of the teacher cannot be adequately measured by considering only one or a few factors, such as class size and the number of teaching periods. The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards has developed a procedure whereby the professional load of any teacher may be readily computed. This pro-

[1] *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* (March, 1940), Vol. XVIII, p. 63.

cedure is based upon the Douglass [1] formula, which takes into consideration the number of pupils in the teacher's

E. Teacher Load[7]

Indicate in the table below the data called for with respect to each class taught. In column (3) encircle the number of periods per week of those classes for which the preparation is the same as or similar to that of some other section; for example, if you have two sections of English I, involving practically the same preparation, you should encircle the number of periods per week for *one* of these two sections.

Name of course	Number of pupils enrolled	Number of periods per week	Product of (2) and (3)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Modern European History	20	5	100
Problems of Democracy	24	5	120
American Hist. — Section A	30	5	150
American Hist. — Section B	35	(5)	175
Totals:		B= 20	A= 545

1. Duplicate preparation

Indicate the number of periods of classwork for which the preparation is the same as or similar to that of some other section. (*Sum* of figures enclosed in circles in third column of above table.) If any laboratories or other double-period sessions are included in column (3) of the table, add the number of such double-period sessions to the sum of the figures enclosed in circles before recording here:. C= 5

2. Subject taught

	D
English, science, social studies	(.011)
Mathematics, foreign language, commerce	.010
Arts and crafts, industrial arts, homemaking, agriculture	.009
Music, physical education	.008

3. Other activities

List other regularly assigned tasks (study halls, library, home rooms, pupil activities, administrative activities, supervisory activities, research activities, guidance activities, conferences, etc.), and give number of school periods devoted to each of these activities per week:

1. History Club 1
2. Supervision activities 2
3. Guidance Conference 1
4. ____

Total number of periods devoted to above activities per week: E= 4

4. Length of class period

Length of typical class period in minutes, including time for change of classes:..... 50

Add 55 55

Sum F= 105

Computation Form[8]

A	→→→→→	545
B	20 ×80	1600
	Sum=	2145
C	5 ×20	100
	Difference=	2045
D	→→→→→	.011
	Product=	22.50[9]
E	4 ÷2	2.00[9]
	Sum=	24.50[9]
F	105 ÷100	1.05[9]
	*Product=	26[10]

[1] Based upon Harl R. Douglass' formula as given in his *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*, Ginn & Co., 1932, pages 114–21.
[8] This form need not ordinarily be filled out by the teacher. Instructions for the computation will be found in *How to Evaluate a Secondary School*, pages 72–74
[9] Carry these computations to two decimal places
[10] Carry this computation to the closest whole number only

Fig. 7. — Sample of Computation of Teacher Load for an Individual Teacher. (From *How to Evaluate a Secondary School*, p. 73. Copyright by Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.)

classes, the subject taught, the number of class periods taught, the amount of duplicate preparation for different sections of the same class, the length of the class period, and the amount

[1] Harl R. Douglass, *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*, pp. 114–121. Copyright by Ginn and Company.

of non-teaching activities. The unit in which a teacher's load is expressed is the "total work required for teaching a class of 20 pupils in a foreign language or mathematics for one class period of 45 minutes." The load for a sample teacher is computed in Fig. 7.

Name_____ Semester, 19_____

Local address_____ Phone_____ Room No._____

Note: In each period below, write the name of the subject taught and the number of pupils.

Day	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*Total No. of Pupils*
Monday									
Tuesday									
Wednesday									
Thursday									
Friday									

Committees	Pupil Activities	Other Assignments

Fig. 8. — A Teacher-Program Card. (Such a record is recommended for each teacher because it provides a directory and a check upon the total professional load.)

SEEKING CANDIDATES

When to select. — There is an old saying that "the early bird catches the worm." Although it may be slightly inelegant to apply, this remark is pertinent to teacher selection. Other factors being equal, the superintendent who first begins looking for the new teachers needed secures the pick of the field. His fellow superintendents who are tardy in beginning their search will have to take what is left. As early as January or February the superintendent will probably know of several positions in his system which must be filled next year and that time is not too early for him to begin his scouting for the necessary talent. One of the most efficient teaching corps which it has been the pleasure of the writer to know had been recruited by an enterprising superintendent who for several years had visited, as early as January, the neighboring teacher-preparing institutions to select his new teachers; this early quest enabled the school system to secure the "blue ribbon" teachers from the graduating classes of those institutions. Would that every school administrator could experience, as has the writer, the thrill which comes from seeing such a teaching corps at work!

Applicants versus non-applicants. — Only when the school system has secured the best teachers for the money available can it be said to have dealt fairly with the pupils and the public. The best teachers available are not always represented in a list of applications; in fact, the most poorly qualified candidates are usually the most persistent applicants. If the services of the best teachers are procured, the position must often seek them, not they the position. To limit, therefore, a choice to the list of applicants often means that a mediocre teacher must be employed. The best qualified teacher for the position, and a teacher who would accept the position at the salary offered, may be one of those modest and altruistic souls who believe that teachers, as is reported of ministers, should be "called" to their positions. The pro-

TEACHER'S APPLICATION, DAY SCHOOLS — MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

READ ACCOMPANYING SUPPLEMENT BEFORE MAKING APPLICATION

1. NAME: SURNAME_____ FIRST NAME_____ MIDDLE NAME_____

2. ADDRESS: TEMPORARY, UNTIL WHAT DATE_____

   PERMANENT_____

   MINNEAPOLIS_____ TELEPHONE_____

3. BIRTHPLACE_____ NATIONALITY OF FATHER_____ OF MOTHER_____

4. PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS: SINGLE OR MARRIED_____ MAIDEN NAME_____

   DATE OF BIRTH_____ AGE_____ HEIGHT_____ WEIGHT_____
   (MONTH, DAY, YEAR)

5. POSITION DESIRED:

   TEACHER

   ELEMENTARY GRADES, IN ORDER OF PREFERENCE_____
   (KINDERGARTEN THROUGH 6)

   ARE YOU PREPARED TO TEACH THE FOLLOWING SUBJECTS IN GRADES FOR WHICH YOU APPLY? MUSIC_____ DRAWING_____

   JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL SUBJECTS, IN ORDER OF PREFERENCE_____
   (GRADES 7 AND 8 OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL OR GRADES 7, 8, AND 9 OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL)

   SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL SUBJECTS, IN ORDER OF PREFERENCE_____
   (GRADES 9, 10, 11, AND 12)

   HIGH SCHOOL ACTIVITIES YOU CAN CONDUCT_____

   VISITING TEACHER, COUNSELOR, LIBRARIAN, OR OTHER POSITION_____

6. EDUCATION. FULL INFORMATION AND DATES ARE REQUIRED

a. To be filled out by all applicants

SCHOOLS ATTENDED	NAME AND LOCATION	PUBLIC OR PRIVATE	COURSE	LENGTH OF COURSE	CREDITS OR DEGREES	DATES	WHEN GRADUATED
ELEMENTARY							
HIGH							
NORMAL SCHOOL OR TEACHERS COLLEGE							
COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY							
OTHER SCHOOLS							
POSTGRADUATE							

b. Applicants with college or university degrees will give the following information in addition to that which is asked for in 6a

NAME OF INSTITUTION		MAJOR SUBJECT	*NO. QUARTER HOURS COMPLETED IN MAJOR SUBJECT	MINOR SUBJECT	*NO. QUARTER HOURS COMPLETED IN MINOR SUBJECT	*NO. QUARTER HOURS COMPLETED IN EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS
TEACHERS COLLEGE						
COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY						
POSTGRADUATE						

*ONE QUARTER HOUR IS ONE HOUR OF CLASS WORK PER WEEK FOR TWELVE WEEKS. TWO SEMESTER HOURS ARE EQUIVALENT TO THREE QUARTER HOURS

7. REASON FOR LEAVING PRESENT OR LAST POSITION _____

8. DO YOU HOLD A MINNESOTA STATE CERTIFICATE TO TEACH SUBJECT OR GRADE FOR WHICH YOU ARE APPLYING?

_____

9. WHEN CAN YOU BEGIN SERVICE? _____

APPLICANT IS REQUIRED TO COMPLETE 10, 11, AND 12 ON REVERSE SIDE OF THIS BLANK

DATE OF APPLICATION _____, 19____

01 (1M 9-34 V) (OVER)

FIG. 9a. — Teacher's Application Blank (obverse), Used in the Minneapolis, Minnesota, Schools.

10. NAME: SURNAME_____ FIRST NAME_____ MIDDLE NAME_____

11. REFERENCES, INCLUDE SUPERINTENDENT AND PRINCIPAL UNDER WHOM YOU ARE TEACHING OR HAVE TAUGHT

NAME	PRESENT ADDRESS	RELATION TO YOUR WORK	
		POSITION	LOCATION

12. COMPLETE HISTORY OF EXPERIENCE

INDICATE BELOW, BY YEARS, YOUR EXPERIENCE (TEACHING, PRACTICAL, OR BUSINESS). STATE DEFINITELY RURAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE. IF YOUR TEACHING EXPERIENCE HAS NOT BEEN CONTINUOUS, INDICATE IN DETAIL WHAT YOUR OCCUPATION WAS DURING THE TIME YOU WERE NOT TEACHING; I. E., STUDY, BUSINESS, TRAVEL, REST. TEACHING DONE WHILE IN ATTENDANCE AT NORMAL SCHOOL OR COLLEGE IS CONSIDERED AS PREPARATION ONLY AND SHOULD NOT BE LISTED AS EXPERIENCE.

FULL AND COMPLETE INFORMATION IS REQUIRED

SCHOOL YEAR	WHERE LOCATED	NO. OF TEACHERS IN SYSTEM	KIND OF SCHOOL, BUSINESS, ETC.	GIVE TIME IN MONTHS	SALARY PER MONTH	GRADE, SUBJECTS, OR POSITION
1914—5						
1915—6						
1916—7						
1917—8						
1918—9						
1919—20						

FIG. 9b. — Teacher's Application Blank (reverse), Used in the Minneapolis, Minnesota, Schools.

fession needs a larger number of such teachers, and it also needs more school officials who have the intelligence and inclination to seek out and reward them.

The best qualified teacher for the position should be procured even though he may not be a candidate. In fact, he may be employed in another system from which, if he is secured, an inconvenience in filling his position will be caused one superintendent by a brother superintendent. Such inconvenience, however, should not be permitted to stand in the way of offering the teacher in question the promotion. To permit it to stand in the way is not to deal fairly with either the schools, the deserving teacher, or the profession. An ethical school administrator believes that when a deserving teacher wins a promotion, the whole profession is exalted; he is happy to see such a teacher advance even though he is inconvenienced and his school system suffers a loss. In fact, the thoroughly ethical school administrator does more than merely rejoice when a deserving employee wins a promotion: he wholeheartedly recommends such an employee for a promotion whenever he can. Where is there an employee who does not applaud an employer of that sort, and where is there one who does not distrust or despise an employer of the opposite kind!

Procuring information. — In order that information regarding the candidate's qualifications may be present in organized form, every school system should adopt a teacher's application blank which it will require all candidates to fill out. [1] This blank should seek information upon such matters as the following: personal characteristics, education, teaching experience, type of position desired, and references. Figure 9 is a sample teacher's application blank. Although evidence shows that "looks do not always indicate how far the frog can jump," few school officials would care to employ a teacher

[1] Several samples of application blanks, recommendation blanks, professional tests, and similar devices for selecting teachers may be found in E. W. Tieg's book, *An Evaluation of Some Techniques of Teacher Selection*, pp. 85–90.

without seeing his photograph or, what is better, seeing the candidate in person.

When the application blank has been filled out by the candidate and has been perused by the employer, if it appears that the candidate may be qualified and available, his qualifications should be further investigated. This investigation may be made by writing to, or conferring with, his references and by consulting with competent persons whom the candidate has *not* given as references, yet who are acquainted with him. The high school and college teachers of the candidate and his former employers are excellent persons from whom to secure this confidential information regarding a candidate. Most school systems find it convenient to use a special recommendation blank for securing confidential information on candidates. Figure 10 is a sample of such a blank. To-whom-it-may-concern recommendations should be treated with little respect, because they do not always tell the whole story; the occasions when such recommendations may be ethically given and used are few and far between.

One of the best means of securing information concerning the candidate is through the personal interview, and there are few instances when teachers should be employed without having this interview. If there are several available candidates for a particular position, it will be found necessary first to cut down the list to, say, two, three, or four persons by a rational process of elimination, then arrange to interview those. The more progressive school systems arrange to pay all or part of the traveling expenses of candidates when they are invited to come for an interview. M. A. Steiner says that the following principles should be kept in mind in conducting interviews: [1]

> 1. . . . Keep control of the situation by carefully judging the quality of salesmanship used by the candidate as distinguished from his quality as a teacher.

[1] "The Technique of Interviewing Teachers," *American School Board Journal* (June, 1928), Vol. LXXVI, p. 65.

2. The interview must be entirely free from personal embarrassment on the part of the applicant. . . .

3. The person interviewing applicants should be able to visualize or to list the qualities which a successful teacher must have in the position which he is desiring to fill. . . .

4. The interviewer should use a list, or an outline, of the qualities on which he desires to be informed and a score card of some kind for recording the results of the interview. (See Fig. 11 for a sample of such an outline or score card.)

_____, applicant for a position as _____

1. Rating Scale

	1 Superior	2 Good	3 Average	4 Mediocre	5 Poor
I. Personal Qualities					
A. Character					
B. Health					
C. Appearance					
D. Mentality					
E. Attitudes					
II. Teaching Ability					
A. Professional Knowledge					
B. Professional Interest					
C. Force					
D. Skill					
E. Results					

2. Additional Information

A. What was the applicant's position in your system? _____

B. What position is the applicant best fitted to fill? _____

C. When was the applicant under your supervision? From Yr. _____ Mo. _____ to Yr. _____ Mo. _____

D. How often, or how regularly, were you able to observe the applicant's work? _____

E. Why did the applicant leave your system of schools? _____

F. Would you unhesitatingly re-employ her? _____

G. State any specific reason why Minneapolis should not employ this applicant at this time _____

Use other side of this blank for further comments or in lieu of the foregoing items of information.

Signed _____

Official Position _____

Date _____ Present Address _____

FIG. 10. — Inquiry Blank, Used by the Minneapolis, Minnesota, Schools.

DATE_____

NAME_____ DATE OF BIRTH _____

ADDRESSES (TEACHING)_____ (HOME)_____

GRADES OR SUBJECTS DESIRED_____

TRAINING			EXPERIENCE		REFERENCES
COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY	DIPLOMA, DEGREE, OR CREDITS	YEAR GRANTED	POSITION AND PLACE	NO. YRS.	(INSTITUTIONS, DEPARTMENTS, OR INDIVIDUALS, ONLY)

OTHER PERTINENT DATA:

REPORT OF INTERVIEW

QUALITIES	RTG.	COMMENTS
APPEARANCE AND PERSONALITY		
EVIDENT SCHOLARSHIP AND CULTURE		
PROFESSIONAL ATTITUDES		
POWER OR FORCEFULNESS		
PROBABLE SUCCESS IN MPLS.		
GENERAL RATING		

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

SIGNED

POSITION

FIG. 11. — Blank for Recording an Interview, Used in the Minneapolis, Minnesota, Schools.

The best means of determining the candidate's fitness to teach is to watch him teach; often this observation may be made either in the practice-teaching classes in the teacher-preparing institution, or in the teacher's present position if he happens to be already in service. The officials of many school systems deem such trial teaching so important that they require every candidate who is seriously considered for a position to teach a few days in the community before he may be placed upon the list of available candidates. In the last analysis, the evidence of qualifications to teach is demonstrated ability to teach; not all promising candidates survive this test. Even the intellectually scintillating member of that time-honored society — Phi Beta Kappa — may turn out to be a flop when asked to produce.

Keeping the candidates informed. — A wag recently defined eternity as "the time which elapses between the time when a teacher makes application for a position and the time when he hears from the school officials regarding his application." School officials could do much to relieve the suspense of candidates for teaching positions by keeping them informed of the status of their applications. Even though it may be necessary to use a form letter in doing it, the receipt of an application should be immediately acknowledged, and all candidates, successful and unsuccessful, should be notified as soon as the position which they have been seeking is filled. By the same rule, teachers should feel obligated to withdraw all outstanding applications as soon as they have accepted a positon. Candidates who have no chance of securing employment in a given school system should be early given that information by school officials; they should not be permitted to waste their time and money on hopeless candidacies. These are matters of common courtesy, if not of professional ethics, which are frequently forgotten.

Local and married women teachers. — It goes without saying that qualifications should be the only criterion for determining who shall be selected for, and retained in, a

teaching position. If those best qualified happen to be non-residents, well and good; if they happen to be married (married *women*, of course, are meant), also well and good. General rules, therefore, which limit the choice of teachers to local, or to unmarried, persons cannot be sanctioned. Such general rules levy a protective tariff on ability; they would prohibit a Solomon from being employed, if he were not a local resident or unmarried. It is possible for discriminating and courageous school officials to select the competent married teachers from the incompetent; likewise it is possible to select the competent non-resident teachers from the incompetent. Any rule which prevents the securing of the most competent teacher is to be condemned; it is a Frankenstein.

The practice of most school systems, however, is contrary to the above recommendation. Recent investigations show that most school systems do not employ married women as *new* teachers. The investigations show also that the status of single-women teachers who marry is as follows: in approximately one-fourth of the systems they are required to resign at once; in approximately another one-fourth they are required to resign at the end of the year; and in the remaining one-half they may continue to teach. These practices are found in spite of the fact that studies have shown that married women having equal training and experience are as efficient as the unmarried.

PLACEMENT OF TEACHERS

Securing a teacher to fit the position. — When teachers are employed, they should, if possible, be employed for a specific position in the school system. In other words, a teacher should be employed who will fit the position rather than to attempt to make the position fit the teacher. Positions have their peculiarities just as teachers have theirs. In many instances, teachers who have failed, or who have had only mediocre success, in a certain position or school of a school system, have been successful when they were trans-

ferred to another position or school. Occasionally, it is advisable to transfer a teacher from a certain position or school to another even during the school year. The teacher should be placed in the proper school and given the type of work which will help him to succeed. A teacher who had prepared to teach, and who would be successful in teaching algebra, might be a miserable failure in teaching a subject which he had not prepared to teach; or a teacher might not be able to work with a certain principal, but would be able to co-operate with another principal.

Although each new teacher should be employed for a specific position in the school system, it is occasionally necessary to revise the original assignment of teachers. As a matter of administrative expediency, therefore, it is advisable, particularly in the larger systems, to employ teachers for a position in the school system, rather than for a specific position. This does not mean, though, that teachers are to be moved from position to position, like pawns in a game, without full consideration of their desires and qualifications and the needs of the schools.

Function of the principal in teacher selection. — In the selection and placement of teachers the superintendent of schools should confer with his principals, supervisors, and other immediate superiors of the teachers. In fact, in an ideal situation the nomination of teachers should be made by their immediate superiors, that is, by the heads of departments, principals, and supervisors, to the superintendent of schools. It is not affirmed that these nominations should always be accepted, but it is affirmed that they should be secured. It is incongruous that many of even the larger and better administered schools do not permit the principal to have anything to say concerning who the members of his teaching staff shall be. Here is another place where more democracy in school administration would improve practice. Much as the writer believes in its theoretical advantages, he will more strenuously urge greater democracy in teacher

selection when heads of departments and principals are more competent to assume the responsibilities which democracy implies; ignorant participation does not lead to efficient democracy.

HELPING THE NEW TEACHER [1]

Kind of help needed. — Much help can and should be given by the administrative superiors and the experienced colleagues of the new teacher toward making him acquainted with his position and making him happy and confident in his new work. Such assistance is particularly helpful to, and appreciated by, those who are beginning their teaching careers. Moreover, psychology demonstrates the importance of the first experience, and shows that *esprit de corps* is largely established early in experience. In any endeavor there is nothing more conducive to success than a correct beginning. The first experience may be the beginning of lifelong habits, good or bad.

Administrative officers and teachers can be of assistance to new teachers in such ways as the following: by helping them become acquainted with their colleagues, pupils, parents, and other people of the community; by familiarizing them with the traditions, regulations, special requirements, and administrative machinery of the school in which they work; by informing them of any peculiar views which the community may have toward conduct, dress, recreation, or other modes of living; and by stimulating the colleagues of the new teachers to take a friendly interest in them.

The teacher who is new to the school or school system needs information concerning such matters as the marking and examination procedures, how pupils are classified, how to secure supplies and equipment, how attendance and other reports are made, whether corporal punishment of

[1] The tendency in best practice is toward giving all new teachers a probationary appointment, usually of one to three years. During that period services are carefully checked, and if found satisfactory, the teacher is given a permanent appointment.

pupils is permitted, when and where faculty meetings are held, the regulations concerning disability leave for teachers, school hours and intermissions, and whom to see for this and that. These matters are too important to be left to chance learning; and when they are left to such learning, they will frequently not be learned at all, or will be learned only after much travail. Moreover, much of such learning is often accompanied by prejudice or rancor, as witness the following dialogue between a new teacher and an old one:

New teacher: "How does a teacher get supplies in this place?"
Old teacher: "We have a deuce of a system. More red tape than you ever saw. I've been here five years and . . ."
New teacher: "I'm sorry that I didn't accept the other offer which I had."

Still more, the teacher who is beginning his teaching career will frequently not *know* what information he needs, or he will be too shy to seek help even though he knows what he needs. The writer once worked with a beginning teacher who purchased certain school supplies with his private funds because he did not know that the school system furnished them. Many other unfortunate, and unnecessary, experiences of teachers who were first putting on the professional harness could be cited.

Means of giving help. — A few more ways and means by which the new teachers may be helped are the following: through having a social party early in the school year for the purpose of making acquaintances; by appointing a well-informed colleague as adviser for each new teacher for the first semester or year; by issuing a school handbook or bulletin giving needed information; by having a special meeting of the new teachers shortly before the beginning of the school term. School officials who have used such procedures claim that they pay dividends in a more happy and efficient personnel. Everything possible should be done to welcome the newcomer and to make him feel at home; in brief, to the new teacher, school officials and old teachers should play the part of good Samaritans.

The first teachers who are visited by heads of departments, principals, supervisors, and superintendents should be the *new* ones, especially the new ones who are beginning their professional careers. Such visits should be made early in the school year — during the first week, if possible. An early visit to the teacher's classroom will often be the means of helping that teacher over a difficulty which, if not immediately surmounted, might cause his failure or become a never-ending source of annoyance and unhappiness to him. An appalling number of beginning teachers fail, and most of them affirm that they fail, because they are not given any help by principals, superintendents, or other supervisory officers.

TEACHER'S CONTRACT

Use and purposes of the contract. — In his nation-wide study of the contractual status of teachers, E. W. Anderson found that about one-twelfth of the city school systems do not use contracts. He found that they are used almost universally in the rural districts and small cities, but in the larger cities, although they are generally used, they are used less frequently than in the small school systems.[1] He summarizes the purposes of the contract in the following words:[2]

> Contract forms are used not only to record the agreement that the teacher is to teach for a certain sum, but also to remind the teacher . . . to notify as to state laws or local requirements, and to impress the teacher with the sacredness of the contract.

Form of contract. — Anderson found further that the form of the contract varies widely from state to state and from school system to school system in the same state. He learned that uniform contract forms are required or used in only a few states. He learned, moreover, that usually the smaller the school system the larger the number of items in the con-

[1] *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status*, p. 149. Copyright by Teachers College, Columbia University.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 14.

tract, and the larger the system the smaller the number of items.[1] He affirms that the best type of teacher's contract would include the following essentials: [2]

1. Name of the school district.
2. Name of the teacher.
3. The agreement that he is to teach.
4. Amount of salary.
5. Time limit for acceptance of the offer.
6. Signature of the authorized school officer or officers.
7. Agreement to abide by the rules and regulations of the board.
8. Signature of the teacher.

Figure 12 is a sample contract which incorporates the items mentioned above; this particular contract is used in the Denver, Colorado, schools. In Denver, the contract is sent to the teacher as one $6'' \times 7''$ card; the teacher tears the card at the perforation, keeps the lower half of it, and sends the upper half to the board of education.

If further rules and regulations, directions, or conditions to the contract are deemed necessary, these may be placed on the reverse side of the form. It is more convenient, however, to have these additional matters covered in the rules and regulations of the board rather than on the contract form; moreover, there would be advantages in having as many matters as possible concerning the contractual status of school employees covered by state law, thus giving those matters state-wide application.

Breaking of contracts. — A contract is a covenant between two parties in which each of the parties promises to do certain things. In a contract, therefore, whether it is verbal or written, two parties give their word to each other that they will fulfill certain obligations. For one party to break the contract without the consent of the second party is to violate one's promise, and such breach has always been dishonorable.

Both boards of education and employees are occasionally

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 148–149.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 145.

guilty of unethical practices in contractual relations. In fairness, though, it should be said that such practices are the exception. It is always the exceptional cases that make news.

DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS
SCHOOL DISTRICT NO 1 IN THE CITY AND COUNTY OF DENVER AND STATE OF COLORADO
OFFICE OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

NOTICE OF APPOINTMENT 11

Date_____

You are hereby notified that the Board of Education has appointed you to a position in the schools of School District No. 1 in the City and County of Denver and State of Colorado, at an initial salary at the rate of _____ dollars per annum, and thereafter in accordance with the adopted salary schedule of the District, which schedule the District reserves the right to change at the beginning of any District budget year.

Effective _____ if accepted prior to _____

To

This appointment is subject to the laws of the State, and the rules and regulations of the Board of Education. Assignment to work will be made by the superintendent of schools.

_____
Secretary

STATEMENT OF ACCEPTANCE

I hereby accept the above appointment, agree to its terms, and agree to perform such duties and services as may lawfully be required of me, and to comply with all laws of the State and rules and regulations made by the Board of Education of said School District.

Denver, Colorado, _____

Name _____

ORIGINAL—Please sign and return to secretary, 414 Fourteenth Street, Denver, Colorado.

Address _____

FORM 6050 DSP 4-39-500 C-243-24410

DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS
SCHOOL DISTRICT NO 1 IN THE CITY AND COUNTY OF DENVER AND STATE OF COLORADO
OFFICE OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

NOTICE OF APPOINTMENT 11

Date_____

You are hereby notified that the Board of Education has appointed you to a position in the schools of School District No. 1 in the City and County of Denver and State of Colorado, at an initial salary at the rate of _____ dollars per annum, and thereafter in accordance with the adopted salary schedule of the District, which schedule the District reserves the right to change at the beginning of any District budget year.

Effective _____ if accepted prior to _____

To

This appointment is subject to the laws of the State, and the rules and regulations of the Board of Education. Assignment to work will be made by the superintendent of schools.

_____
Secretary

STATEMENT OF ACCEPTANCE

I hereby accept the above appointment, agree to its terms, and agree to perform such duties and services as may lawfully be required of me, and to comply with all laws of the State and rules and regulations made by the Board of Education of said School District.

Denver, Colorado, _____

Name _____

DUPLICATE—To be retained by appointee.

Address _____

FORM 6050 DSP 4-39-500 C-243-24410

FIG. 12. — A Teacher's Contract, Used in the Denver, Colorado, Schools.

Following are suggestions calculated to help exterminate the more common unethical practices of boards of education and employees in respect to contractual relations.

Suggestions to boards. — To boards of education the following suggestions are made:

1. They should not require school employees to sign contracts which have unfair provisions. An example of such provisions would be a signed and undated resignation.

2. They should not employ persons already under contract in other school systems without first securing the consent of their present employers. On this point the codes of ethics of several of the state teachers' associations have pronouncements, that of Alabama being typical: "A superintendent or other official to whom is intrusted the power to employ teachers should not knowingly employ a teacher already under contract without the knowledge and consent of the employers of said teacher."

3. They should not violate contracts, especially for insufficient reasons. Some of the insufficient reasons are stated in the Alabama code of ethics for teachers; that particular section of the code says:

> The practice of terminating contracts with teachers because of shortage of funds, epidemics, and other causes deemed sufficient reasons for closing the schools should be no longer tolerated. It should be as obligatory on a municipality to fulfil a contract with a teacher as a contract with any other official of the municipality.

4. They should give school employees early notification of their re-election or dismissal. Representative quotations from the many state codes of ethics which have pronouncements upon this matter are here given:

> *Alabama.* — Teachers in service in a system should be notified early in the spring, by boards of education, if their services will be desired for another term.
>
> *New Jersey.* — Teachers who fail to meet the needs of the school or of the community are entitled to a frank statement by the chief executive or other authorized representative of the board of education, of the cause, and should never be subjected to the humiliation of a non-election without due notice. This information should also come in time so that they may seek positions elsewhere.

Either by state law or by rules and regulations of the local board of education, school employees should be protected in their positions as long as they are efficient. Many states have already enacted such statutes and the tendency everywhere is toward their enactment. The courts are agreed that proper tenure laws are not designed primarily to protect teachers but to protect pupils and the public against politics and other forms of favoritism. Most of the larger school systems have adopted such rules and regulations, or they have an understanding that teachers who are efficient shall

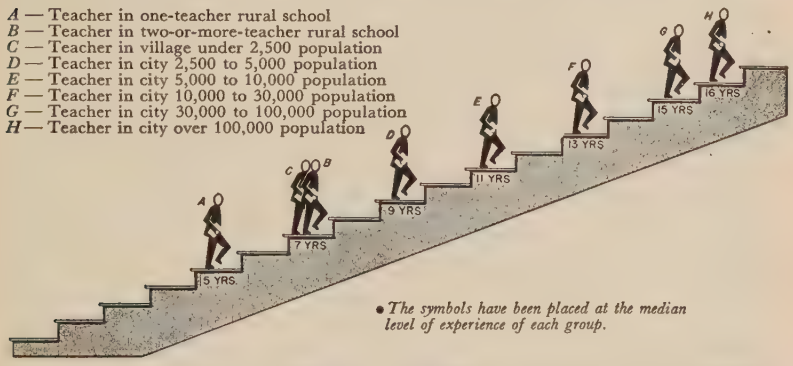


FIG. 13. — Number of Years of Professional Experience of Classroom Teachers. (From "The Status of the Teaching Profession," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, March, 1940, Vol. XVIII, p. 58.)

be privileged to keep their positions as long as they desire them. Many school systems have adopted the continuing form of contract. In most communities the time has fortunately passed when school boards and the general public frown upon teachers who remain longer than two or three terms in a school system. The laws and rules and regulations pertaining to tenure should not, however, make it impossible to dismiss an employee for just cause. They should not "freeze" all teachers, incompetent as well as competent, into their positions. They should indicate an orderly procedure by which incompetents may be dismissed and should specify the causes for dismissal. Life tenure for

school employees is not favored,[1] neither are the too-frequent conditions today which make it possible for school employees to be "fired" on the slightest pretext. A middle position is more tenable. This middle position is well summarized by E. P. Cubberley in the following words:[2]

> . . . If a teacher or principal will cooperate it is easier to educate them than to dismiss them, and far more pleasant. If superintendents were given legal control of the selection and designation for retention of all teachers, so that boards of education and their committees were deprived of all powers in the matter except the approval or the disapproval of the superintendent's recommendations, the question of the dismissal of teachers would, in most communities, occupy a less important position. Still, good teachers do not always continue to be good, and an occasional removal will need to be made for the welfare of the service.
>
> The notice of dismissal should in itself be given under certain definite conditions which are just to both sides. In the first place, no teacher should be liable to a termination of contract for failure to render satisfactory services who has not been notified of the deficiencies, and given an opportunity and reasonable assistance to remedy them. If improvement does not result, sufficient to warrant the retention of the teacher, the superintendent should then recommend that the board desires to terminate the contract with the teacher to take effect at the close of the school year. If the board approves, the notice should be given to the teacher, and not later than the last day the schools are in session during the school year. For the sufficiency of the reasons for terminating the contract the superintendent and the board should be the sole judge, without the meddling of lawyers or the interference of the courts. Teachers not so notified would continue in service from year to year.[3]
>
> This middle ground is equally just to both sides. The usual condition is not just to teachers who have spent years in making preparation for a lifework of service, and the life-tenure plan is not just to taxpayers or to the children in the schools. The latter certainly have rights as well as

[1] Such tenure would be more defensible if the entrance standards to the profession were much higher than they are today.

[2] *Public School Administration*, pp. 216–218. Copyright by Houghton Mifflin Company.

[3] It is the belief of the present writer that a dismissed employee should always have the right of appeal to the chief state school official, such as is provided by law in the state of New York; the decision of such official should be final. He will, however, more strongly favor such procedure when chief state school officials are everywhere selected on a strictly professional basis rather than on a "political" basis as is often the practice today.

the teachers. The middle ground gives practically life tenure to every worthy teacher and school officer, but merely reserves to the board of control for the schools, acting on the recommendation of their chief executive officer, and only after helpful advice has failed to bring the desired improvement, the right quietly to remove from the schools those who should not be there.

5. School officials should adopt a liberal attitude toward releasing employees from their contracts when the latter have occasion to request it, and they should especially maintain such attitude when the positions can be filled without jeopardizing the interests of the pupils.

Suggestions to employees. — To school employees the following suggestions are made on contractual relations:

1. Before signing a contract, school employees should carefully read it and make sure that all its conditions are fair and ethical. When the contract is signed, it should be adhered to until mutually dissolved. Most boards of education have proved themselves fair and liberal in their willingness to release employees from contracts when the employees desire to be released. A few Shylock boards, though, still insist upon taking their "pound of flesh." Following are quotations from a few of the codes of ethics of the state teachers' associations which outline proper procedures:

Connecticut. — The signing of a contract demands more than a casual perusal before so doing. Each clause should be carefully studied and local conditions known before the position is accepted.

A contract is a business document and should receive the same consideration and attention that all like matters of business demand. In case of emergency the same thoughtful consideration should be given to its termination as business etiquette and sanction demand, with the further thought that the good of the child is paramount. However, a liberal attitude toward release should be taken by the superintendent when it is possible to do so. Conditions of release should be stated in the contract.

Louisiana. — A teacher should never violate a contract. Unless the consent of the employing body is obtained releasing the obligation, the contract should be fulfilled. On the other hand, when a teacher is offered a better position elsewhere, it is against the best interests of the

school to stand in the way of the teacher's advancement by arbitrary insistence upon the terms of a needlessly rigid contract, provided the place can be satisfactorily filled.

2. In preceding paragraphs it was recommended that boards of education should always give employees ample notice of re-election or dismissal. Employees have a reciprocal obligation — they should give boards of education sufficient notice of their resignation in order that there may be ample time to secure a successor. On this matter the code of ethics of the California state teachers' association says that, "Upon resignation, due notice should be given employing bodies." The Massachusetts code of ethics sets a time limit for the notice of resignation; it says that, "In the absence of a contract, a teacher should never leave a position without giving at least four weeks' notice."

3. If a school employee makes application for a given position, and under certain conditions, he is under obligation to accept the position if it is offered him, unless the board of education should excuse him from this obligation. Some school employees apply for other positions merely to force a salary increase in their present position; the ethics of such a procedure is doubtful, to say the least. The code of ethics of the teachers of South Carolina has the following pronouncement covering this matter:

> It is the duty of teachers to be scrupulously faithful to contracts and promises. This means that, if one has applied for a position on certain terms and been elected to it on these terms, he is under obligation to accept it. If, in order to make sure of a position, he makes application for several places, he should let boards know that he reserves the right to choose which place to accept in case of election to more than one. Otherwise an application should be regarded as a promise to accept, as soon as notified of election.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Is it extravagant to say that "the teacher is the school"? Why or why not?

2. How would you rank in importance the selecting of teachers with other functions of the superintendent? Explain.

3. As a superintendent, how would you proceed to find desirable candidates for your teaching vacancies? Would you use the services of teachers' agencies? Why or why not?

4. In the teacher's application blank upon which, if any, of the following items would you seek information: church affiliation, political party, mental rating, and race?

5. Should teachers be required to take a physical examination and to furnish a certificate of good health? Why or why not?

6. Would you recommend the use of the competitive examination for the selection of teachers? Why or why not? Would your recommendations apply to large and small school systems with equal cogency? Explain.

7. Some employers use an interview blank in recording interviews with prospective employees. What do you think of such procedure? Explain.

8. Other things being equal, what advantages would there be in employing local residents as teachers? What disadvantages? How, if at all, would the size of the school system affect your policy?

9. If you were a school administrator and were asked to recommend someone for a vacancy in another school system, would you recommend one of your excellent employees for the vacancy? Explain.

10. As a superintendent of schools, would you favor a rule prohibiting the employment of married-women teachers? Why or why not? What are the arguments usually advanced for and against the married-women teachers?

11. Should the superintendent consult his principals when teachers are being employed? Why or why not?

12. Should a superintendent always confer with a teacher's present employers before offering the teacher a position? Explain.

13. Should school board members interview candidates for teaching positions? Why or why not?

14. How may school officials avoid inbreeding among the employees of the school system?

15. How do you explain the fact that in the rural and village schools boards of education more often insist upon selecting the teachers than in the city schools?

16. As superintendent of a large or medium-sized school system, what steps would you take to see that pupil-teacher ratios were kept reasonable?

17. What effect, if any, do you believe the use of the radio and visual methods of education will have upon the size of classes in the future?

18. What steps should the superintendent take to ascertain the number of new teachers, and where they will be needed, next year?

19. What steps can, and should, the members of the profession take to break up the practice which some unethical members have of applying for positions which are not vacant?

20. Why has the percentage of men teachers tended to decrease? Do you believe the percentage of men teachers should be increased? Explain.

21. How do you explain the fact that college and university professors have a much greater assurance of tenure than elementary and secondary school teachers?

22. What sort of a state teachers' tenure law, if any, would you recommend?

23. What relation does a teacher's pension system have to tenure?

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Chapter VI

PREPARATION AND CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

PRE-SERVICE PREPARATION

Amount of preparation needed. — The amount and type of preparation which should be required for entering the various types of teaching service are as yet entirely matters of opinion and will probably continue to be for a long time; on these problems much research and thinking are still needed in spite of the large amount which has already gone forward. Some persons argue that, because of the importance and difficulty of their work, elementary school teachers should have at least as much preparation as high school teachers, and others argue as strenuously that the present practice should be perpetuated — that is, they affirm that high school teachers should continue to have approximately four years of preparation beyond the high school, and elementary school teachers should have approximately two years. Moreover, some persons believe that only a meager amount of preparation is necessary for any teacher; they affirm that teachers are "born, not trained," that almost anyone can teach school, and that the work of teachers is of little value to society anyway. At the other extreme are many persons who affirm that teaching is one of the most technical, difficult, and important vocations and that only those persons who have undergone a long and exacting regimen of training should be permitted to enter it. These latter persons are constantly initiating and supporting movements looking

toward higher standards for teachers, and they set as their goal, hoping to attain it within the next few years, a minimum of four, five, six, or seven years of preparation for both elementary and secondary school teachers; that the profession is rapidly moving toward this goal is seen on every hand and educational statesmanship should do everything possible to accelerate the movement.

Present amount of preparation. — Although the amount of preparation possessed by the typical teacher has been increasing by leaps and bounds, the amount now possessed is not something to point to with pride. In many communities, the truth of George Bernard Shaw's witticism, to the effect that "He who can, *does;* and he who cannot, *teaches,*" is almost proved. Thousands of teachers have less preparation than that amount which is sometimes mentioned as the "minimum of respectability" — namely, two years beyond high school; in fact, thousands have had no more preparation than that represented by a four-year high school course. Many studies have brought out the fact that the inadequately prepared teachers are usually found in the rural schools, the towns, and the small cities, whereas the better prepared ones are usually secured by the larger cities because of higher salaries and other advantages; of course, there are many exceptions to this practice, but the general rule is as stated. Most states now require at least two years of college preparation for new teachers in the elementary schools and at least four years of college preparation for new teachers in the secondary schools. And it is especially significant that a few states now require at least four years of college preparation for new teachers in the elementary schools and at least five years of college preparation for new teachers in the secondary schools.

The local teacher-preparing school. — In the early days of the teacher-preparing movement the practice was common for school systems to prepare their own teachers. Thus, the city systems frequently provided normal schools, or teacher-

preparing departments in connection with the local high schools, and the counties made similar provisions for the rural schools. In the early days these local efforts undoubtedly helped to meet a real need, although they did not fully meet it. They served as a stopgap in the teacher-preparing movement until the state as a whole could be made interested in a teacher-preparing program and could establish its own agencies and facilities for this important work. In certain sections of the Union, these local teacher-preparing institutions are still frequently maintained to prepare teachers

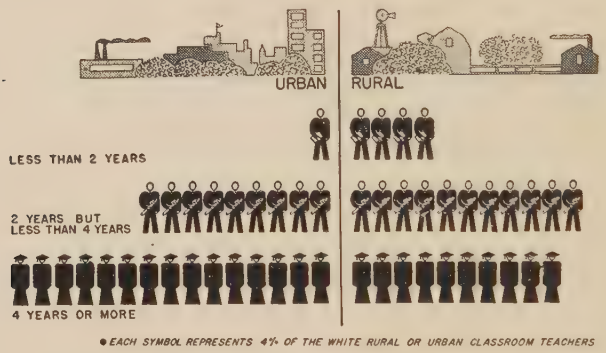


FIG. 14. — Amount of College Preparation of Classroom Teachers. (From "The Status of the Teaching Profession," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, March, 1940, Vol. XVIII, p. 56.)

for the rural schools although there is seldom a need for their continuance. The teacher-preparing departments of high schools are no longer needed anywhere and should be abolished at once.

During recent years the tendency everywhere has been away from the establishment and support of local teacher-preparing institutions and toward the establishment and support of state teachers' colleges.[1] These years have seen the demise of thousands of city and county normal schools and teacher-preparing departments in high schools, and the establishment of a few larger and better equipped state

[1] "Teachers college" is rapidly taking the place of "normal school" as a name for teacher-preparing institutions.

teacher-preparing institutions in their place. During recent years, moreover, hundreds of private and denominational colleges and universities have been permitted by the several states to prepare teachers for the public schools; in fact, this movement has gone too far, because many of these schools do not have adequate facilities for their work.[1]

It is generally agreed that only the larger school systems, which need a fairly large number of new teachers each year, and which are able to support an efficient teacher-preparing institution, should try to do so. The small school systems should not establish and maintain their own teacher-preparing schools or departments because of the high per student cost of them and the low standards which they must usually maintain. Local normal schools and teacher-preparing departments in school systems other than the very large ones are likely to be seriously handicapped regarding the number and qualifications of the instructors; their libraries are likely to be too small for efficient work; and their practice-teaching and observation facilities are likely to be unsatisfactory. If the small school system tries to maintain acceptable standards of teacher preparation, it is likely to perpetuate financial waste; for example, it will probably find that its pupil-teacher ratios are too small, and that many other factors make the per pupil cost of furnishing preparation too expensive.

Still more, when it is considered that the local teacher-preparing institution draws its students from the local community, and that these students will normally become teachers in the local school system, the dangers of inbreeding in the teaching personnel of the school system are seen. The smaller the school system the greater these dangers become. Although the dangers exist in some degree, inbreeding is not so likely to occur in large school systems such as those of

[1] One of the most urgent problems confronting the profession is the standardization of the colleges now permitted to prepare teachers. The solution of the problem will probably be found in greatly reducing the number of colleges which the state will permit to perform this function.

New York City, Chicago, Philadelphia, St. Louis, Cleveland, and Cincinnati; in such metropolises, life is very diverse, and new and worth-while experiences are being constantly met, all of which tends to keep one from becoming provincial.

Summary of principles of pre-service preparation. — The most exhaustive and scholarly investigation of the teaching personnel of the United States was recently completed by E. S. Evenden and his associates, all working under the auspices of the United States Office of Education. As a summary of the discussion of the pre-service preparation of teachers, we shall quote *in extenso* the "principles of teacher education" formulated by that well-known investigation: [1]

1. It is the responsibility of the state to establish standards for the preparation of its public-school teachers, to insure an adequate supply of teachers meeting those standards, and to protect its standards and the services rendered by the teachers by maintaining a balance between the supply of teachers and the demand for teachers. This control should be exercised primarily by means of certification and the enforcement of adequate regulations of state departments of education.
2. The importance of the work of the teacher, particularly in a democracy, justifies securing the strongest recruits possible for the teachers' curricula. This end will be assisted by:
   (a) Admission requirements aimed to select the most capable of the applicants as shown by all known prognostic measures including health and personality.
   (b) Programs of "selective recruiting" to interest exceptionally capable high-school graduates in teaching.
   (c) Systems of student personnel and guidance service which will start at admission to a teacher's curriculum and continue through a period of adjustment following graduation.
   (d) A rigid system of elimination of students who, during their preparation, show themselves to be unsuited or unfit for teaching.
3. The preparation of teachers and other educational workers should be determined by the demands which will be made upon them in the different types of positions and not by arbitrarily or traditionally set requirements for majors or minors. This implies that:
   (a) Competence in the total work of the teacher should be the criterion for determining curriculum content and arrangement.

[1] *U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin,* 1933 No. 10, pp. 243–246.

(b) Graduates should be aware of the desirable elements in present educational practice and also sensitive to needed changes in educational procedures.

(c) Graduation from curricula for teachers should depend upon mastery of the content and skills demanded by the work to be performed and not by time spent nor courses passed.

4. In order to assume their appropriate positions of leadership in the communities in which they work, teachers should have sufficient general education to compare favorably with that of members of the "learned professions" and with that of the better educated citizens of representative communities. This education should include:
   (a) Survey contacts, preferably on the college level, with the major established fields of knowledge — English, social sciences, natural sciences, mathematics, music, fine arts, and philosophy.
   (b) A scholarly mastery of the subject or subjects to be taught and of the subjects most closely related to them.
   (c) A familiarity with the social, political, industrial, and aesthetic developments in this and other countries.
   (d) The development of one or more fields of intellectual avocation.
   (e) The development of a growing and integrated philosophy of living.
5. Teachers should have the distinctly professional knowledge and skills required in the type of position for which they are preparing. These distinctly professional elements include:
   (a) Professional orientation with respect to education and teaching.
   (b) Mastery of essential educational tools — psychology, measurements, and statistics.
   (c) Knowledge of the individuals to be taught — in most cases, children.
   (d) Essential teaching methods and techniques for the subjects taught and the groups taught. These may be presented in four or more different ways.
   (e) Knowledge of class organization and class instruction.
   (f) Observation of and participation and practice in teaching.
   (g) Professional integration and the development of a working philosophy of education.
6. In order to protect the learners from the effects of inexperienced teaching all initial practice teaching should be closely supervised.
   (a) The period required to obtain the necessary initial skill should vary for different individuals.
   (b) Practice-teaching facilities should be representative of the better schools in which the graduates will be employed.

(c) Curricula for teachers should aim, in the time available, to make prospective teachers as competent as possible at the beginning of their period of practice teaching.

(d) No teacher should be certificated who has not satisfactorily passed a period of supervised practice teaching.

7. The concept of a "safety minimum" of teaching skill at graduation implies:

(a) A period of probation after graduation, during which the prospective teacher demonstrates his ability to add to his teaching skills.

(b) A program of in-service education which will stimulate teachers to continued professional development.

8. Aside from having the necessary knowledge and skills a teacher should possess those traits of personality which are usually found among the better teachers and which are associated with leaders in any representative community. Some of the elements in a program for the education of teachers which contribute to personality development are:

(a) A comprehensive program of student guidance and welfare.

(b) A rich program of extra-class activities especially those which are also found in the elementary or secondary schools.

(c) A comprehensive program of health services.

(d) The provision of residence and dining facilities which contribute to desirable habits and manners.

(e) A generous program for the social and religious activities of students.

(f) Opportunities to discover and develop latent creative talents.

9. Education should be recognized as one of the major forces responsible for social, political, and economic stability and betterment. A general understanding of this rôle of education should be a part of the sociological information of all citizens. . . .

10. Pre-service curricula for teachers should be largely prescribed — the prescription differing in terms of the positions for which the prospective teachers are preparing. . . .

11. Courses in curricula for teachers, whenever the number of students makes it possible, should be "differentiated" for the larger school divisions; that is, teachers preparing for the elementary schools and those preparing for the high schools should have separate courses in the various subjects. . . .

12. Institutions offering curricula for teachers should be approved for and restricted to the preparation of teachers for only those types of positions for which the institutions are satisfactorily equipped in staff, library, and other facilities. . . .

13. The American ideal of equality of educational opportunity is directly related to the preparation of teachers and all programs — state or national — to equalize educational opportunities should include as one of the most important factors the education of the teachers.
14. Institutions offering work on the graduate level for teachers should adapt the courses and the requirements for graduate degrees to the needs of teachers in the various types of positions. . . .
15. The faculty of any institution, the graduates of which are recognized for certification as teachers, should be pervaded by a high degree of contagious enthusiasm for teaching and a sincere interest in the students as prospective teachers. . . .
16. The teacher plays so important a part in the work of the public schools, and so many factors which require years to develop are involved in the increasing efficiency of institutions for the preparation of teachers, that the education of teachers should be classed as one of those essential forms of public service which should be maintained regardless of economic changes. . . .

PREPARATION IN SERVICE

Preparation in service versus pre-service preparation. — Although pre-service preparation for teachers is a *sine qua non*, and should always be insisted upon by school officials, there is a type of preparation which is of even greater importance. That type is preparation in service. The importance of preparation in service compared with pre-service preparation becomes evident when it is realized that the institutional school has the prospective teacher under its tutelage only a few years whereas the school of experience has him all his life. Upon reflection it is readily seen that only a small portion of our experiences has been acquired in the institutional school; by far the major portion of them has been given us by the school of experience. The functions of the institutional school are primarily to provide the tools of knowledge and to develop an abiding interest in the use of those tools for the acquisition of knowledge. That it is possible for a person — particularly a person with good intelligence and an indomitable will — to procure an education with little institutional preparation is evident from the experiences of such persons as Benjamin Franklin and Abraham Lincoln. Who is there to

say that these men were not truly educated? Yet they attended the institutional school only a few months. Their education was acquired chiefly through reading and observation — in brief, through the school of experience.

The members of no profession have a greater opportunity for self-education than the members of the teaching profession. Teachers are engaged in the business of education. Their whole environment is conducive to intellectual growth. Always they are dealing with minds, the most stimulating things in the world. And these minds are always different; moreover, they never grow old, but come to teachers in an ever-changing procession.

Necessity for preparation in service. — A plea is being made here, therefore, for a lifelong continuance of the professional growth of teachers. Such continuous preparation is of great importance for the following reasons:

In the first place, as was indicated in earlier paragraphs of this chapter, most teachers enter the profession with only a small amount of college preparation for their work. Whereas teaching is one of the most difficult and important professions, and should in consequence be engaged in only by persons who are well prepared, only about one-half of the teachers of the United States have two years of college preparation. Preparation in service is especially necessary for this group of inadequately trained teachers.

Preparation in service, however, is not urged for the inadequately prepared teachers alone. It is of vital importance to those who have spent a much longer period of time in the teacher-preparing institutions. Complete preparation before the teacher enters the service cannot be secured in a teacher-preparing institution. It cannot be secured because the novitiate lacks the experiential background. Before the novitiate can gain full competence and confidence he must try out his theories and techniques in an actual teaching situation; he must secure the feel of his work. Experience continues to be the greatest teacher.

In the second place, preparation in service is necessary because teaching efficiency cannot remain static. Knowledge of teaching, like that of other professions, is progressing rapidly. Educational theories are under constant criticism and revision. Experimentation and investigation are constantly bringing forward new methods and new techniques, and are making us more familiar with that most baffling thing in the world — the working of the human mind. The teacher must be familiar with such discoveries if he expects to keep abreast of the profession.

A teacher once prepared is not always prepared. The best education is likely to become obsolete the same as the best automobile. A teacher who may have been graduated from a first-rate teacher-preparing institution only a few years ago could not be called a prepared teacher today unless he has read the pedagogical literature appearing in the meantime and has taken other steps to keep informed on progress which has been made in the profession. Persons who have been out of the teaching profession only a few years, upon re-entering it, find that they are "back numbers"; to get up to date they must spend a large amount of time in ascertaining what has happened during their absence. It frequently happens that well-prepared missionary teachers go to out-of-way places in foreign countries and in a few years upon their return to this country find that they are largely back numbers, because they were not able to secure and to read the pedagogical literature appearing during their absence.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR FOR PREPARATION IN SERVICE

Keeping himself professionally alive. — The school administrator has a dual responsibility for preparation in service. In the first place, he must make sure that he keeps himself professionally alive and growing. Although he may be, as he usually is, an extremely busy person, he must some-

how find some time for increasing his competence. Usually he can readily secure this by a careful budgeting of his time. Although people may not have equal opportunity in all respects, they are alike in at least one respect, namely, in that they have twenty-four hours in their day. But in the way in which they spend these hours — well, that is a different matter! Some persons spend their time in a purposeful manner whereas others waste a large proportion of every day. That most of us do not know what becomes of our time will become immediately evident if we take a few minutes and attempt to ascertain how we spent our time yesterday, last week, or last month. In order to be most efficient one must spend a reasonable amount of time in play; such time should not be regarded as wasted, because a person who does not know how to play lacks one of the characteristics of an educated person. However, there is a vast difference between idling time away and consciously using time in wholesome play or recreation. The time which most of us waste, if utilized toward the accomplishment of worth-while ends, would within a few years make us truly leaders in our profession.

Although the school administrator directs by far the largest and most important enterprise of the community, and although work is always reposing upon and around his desk, he must somehow find time for study leading to professional growth. He owes the securing of this time to himself, to his profession, and above all to his school system. There are many ways, of course, by which this growth may be continued. It may be accomplished through such means as reading good books and magazines, visiting other schools, preparing addresses, maintaining an open mind toward new theories and changes in education, attending state and national educational meetings, making school investigations, attending summer schools, traveling, and pursuing extension and correspondence courses. This list, of course, is not exhaustive, because any new experience is educational.

Keeping other employees professionally alive. — The second responsibility which the school administrator has for preparation in service is always to encourage, and occasionally to require, his teachers and other co-workers to keep professionally alive and growing. He can best stimulate such growth by setting the proper example. It is the obligation of the school administrator to set the pace for professional growth. If the school administrator is intellectually dead or dying, his associates are likely to deteriorate to his level. On the other hand, if he is professionally alive, his associates can hardly fail to be stimulated by his example.

The greatest professional sin which teachers can commit is to become guilty of mental stagnation, and it is an unfortunate commentary that many teachers commit that unpardonable sin. Whereas teaching should be one of the most stimulating and intellectualizing professions, many teachers permit themselves to get in a rut and soon to become old fogies. Unconsciously many put on blinders and do their work in a mechanical and halfhearted way. They use the same instructional methods and materials year in and year out. They do not read the professional literature; they fail to attend educational meetings and to take other steps to keep themselves intellectually alive and growing. Their minds are closed to all change. In brief, they permit themselves to become like the Irishman's turtle — "dead and doesn't know it." Instead of "reconstructing their experience," which is the essence of continuing education, they blindly and uncritically repeat old experiences; although such teachers frequently boast of their many years of experience, they have really had only *one* experience which they have *repeated* many times. The pupils and the teaching profession would be fortunate to be rid of such teachers.

Under ideal conditions all members of the profession would be ambitious enough to keep professionally alive without any urge from their administrative and supervisory superiors. Their stimuli for growth should be inner rather

than outer. But that ideal condition does not exist, and will probably never exist. There are few persons who do not need to be stimulated, helped, and occasionally compelled, to develop intellectually; few of us live up to our potentialities. What means, therefore, may teachers use in preparing themselves in service, and particularly, what can school administrators do toward helping and stimulating them to take advantage of these means? In the next few pages the chief agencies for preparing in service will be discussed.

AGENCIES FOR PREPARING IN SERVICE

Reading. — Reading is unquestionably the greatest intellectualizing agency in the world today and the people of the United States are the most avid readers of the world. Thousands of books on innumerable subjects are published annually.[1] Also, thousands of newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, and bulletins are published daily, weekly, or monthly. There is scarcely a group of persons, particularly of any size and cohesion, which does not have at least one magazine published for it. The undertakers, butchers, barbers, and bakers have their magazines the same as the teachers, physicians, and lawyers have theirs. Approximately 150 magazines are published for teachers. Some of the teachers' magazines are of general interest, and others are for special groups of teachers. For example, there are magazines especially for school administrators, others for elementary teachers, and still others for kindergarten teachers. Likewise there is at least one magazine for the teachers of each of the special subjects such as modern languages, home economics, mathematics, music, industrial arts, history, science, English, and geography.

The greatest opportunity which the typical teacher possesses for professional growth is through reading. New theories and new discoveries in methods, techniques, and child

[1] The number of books, by various classifications, published each year in the United States may be found in *The Publishers' Weekly* (usually one of the January numbers).

psychology are being constantly chronicled in the pedagogical magazines and books. It is an unfortunate commentary that many teachers do not avail themselves of the opportunity to read the pedagogical literature. Many surveys have shown that a large percentage of teachers do not subscribe to even one teachers' magazine. Another considerable percentage subscribes to only one or two such magazines, and often these one or two are of an inferior sort. Although it is possible to keep professionally alive through other agencies, it is difficult to see how teachers can keep fully alive without reading some of the pedagogical magazines and professional books available. Generally speaking, the teacher who does not read such material, if he is not already intellectually dead, bids fair soon to become so. He becomes a traitor to his pupils and his profession.

The teacher's reading should not, however, be entirely of a pedagogical nature. He should read magazines and books in other fields in order that he may know more about life and the world in general. To be truly educated he must know something of the activities of the world of art, of music, of literature, of politics, of commerce, of international relations, and of other fields. In brief, his profession demands that he be one of the best educated persons in the community, able to discuss intelligently many things outside of those immediately concerned with teaching. If he has this broad acquaintance with the world's activities, past and present, he will be more expert with his pupils, and at the same time he will be more of a human being and be respected more by the community. With this ubiquitous learning he would be able, and would desire, to discuss things other than mere "shop"; with this erudition he would not be merely a cloistered pedagogue, able only to speak that language of pedagogues, facetiously dubbed "pedaguese."

It goes without saying that all teachers should have membership in the state and national education associations, which would automatically provide them with the journals

of these associations. The codes of ethics of many education associations enjoin such membership upon all members of the profession. Many teachers will feel that when they have paid their membership fees in these associations they cannot afford to spend much more for professional reading material. To read, however, only the organs of the education associations, excellent as they are, is not sufficient.

School officials may stimulate teachers to read more magazines and books by organizing reading clubs. These clubs may be practicably organized by school buildings or some other unit. For example, in a given building each teacher might be encouraged to contribute annually a few dollars toward the purchase of new books and subscriptions to magazines. Such books and magazines should become the property of the group and be made readily accessible in the school library or elsewhere to all members of the group. It is an excellent investment for the board of education to provide funds for the binding and permanent retention of some of the better and more frequently used magazines. Moreover, the board of education would do well to join with the teachers in making from the public funds a small contribution toward the purchase of new books and subscriptions to magazines.

Daily preparation. — One of the best means which teachers can utilize in improving themselves is through daily preparation for their classes. A teacher should not be guilty of meeting a class when he does not know what he is going to do. Although he may have received his bachelor's, master's, or doctor's degree from a first-rate university, such excellent preparation will not excuse him from giving a few minutes each day toward preparing for meeting his classes. Ideally, some daily preparation should be made for teaching such a subject as spelling — a subject generally deemed to be, justly or unjustly, one of the more mechanical and easily taught subjects. In making daily preparation for their classes teachers need some of the spirit exhibited by

Thomas Arnold, eminent savant of Rugby. Arnold was once asked why he worked so diligently in preparing each of his lectures. His reply was, "I prefer that my students should drink from a running stream rather than from a stagnant pool."

It is not affirmed that the teacher should remain in his classroom all day, then spend the whole evening, and his other free moments, in preparing to meet his classes the next day; such practice would make the teacher a drudge, and life under it would be uninteresting and barren for both pupils and teacher. *Some* time should be given to such preparation, even though it be no more than ten, fifteen, or twenty minutes daily. Many teachers do not give even that much time to daily preparation. In fact, there is plenty of proof that some teachers give no time to daily preparation. Their work calls to mind the old expression of the street — "We don't know where we are going, but we are on our way."

Research and committee work. — It is necessary, if one would keep intellectually alive and growing, to maintain an open mind toward new theories and methods, toward change and progress, and to be interested in making investigations and in the results of investigations made by other persons. Although it is not advocated that the teacher turn his classroom into a laboratory to investigate all types of educational theories and isms, some research on practical topics is advocated. Not only will this frequently result in the discovery of a new method or technique, but it will help to keep the teacher intellectually alive. The most characteristic feature of professional education during the past three or four decades is its attempt to secure a scientific basis; surely such a basis is needed. In spite of the excellent beginning, the science of education is still in its infancy; it has hardly outgrown its swaddling clothes. Co-operation of all teachers is indispensable if the progress of the science of education is to be accelerated. All can be consumers of research, although all may not be able to be producers.

To date, practically all of the research in education has been made in the colleges and universities. This emphasis results from the fact that one of the historic functions of colleges and universities and of the professors therein has been the conducting of research, and from the additional fact that the professors have been especially prepared, and provided with the equipment, supplies, and assistance, for such work. Observation shows, however, that the opportunity of the elementary and secondary school teacher has not been realized in this respect. No one has a more ideal environment for making educational investigations of a practical nature than the classroom teacher. His situation is entirely natural, for he has the pupils in their natural habitat; he has the opportunity to study them under school conditions that are normal — conditions which do not always exist in the experimental laboratories of the colleges and universities.

Another opportunity for research work and for professional growth is presented through the doing of committee work. In the better organized and administered school systems much of the work of administration is being done by committees. Some of the committees on which teachers may do effective work are: curriculum, library, educational supplies, social, teachers' meetings, public relations, and extra-classroom activities. A later section of this chapter discusses the advantages of teacher participation in school administration and more need not be said here about these matters.

Supervision. — The prime test of the efficacy of supervision is whether it exercises leadership and whether there develops from such leadership a better type of education for the pupils. Unless supervision contributes to securing for the pupils a better type of education, it is a parasite and a debauchery of public funds. Teachers testify that the aforementioned standards are not always kept in mind by the supervisors under whom they have worked. They affirm that it is directed too much toward *them* and not sufficiently

toward the total learning situation. They state that it is always directed toward their weaknesses and seldom toward trying to make their strengths stronger. They complain that a large part of the so-called supervision is *inspection* only; they often dub it "snoopervision." They further complain that too much supervision is based upon opinion, that it is expressed in dictates from above, and that it is destructive and discouraging rather than constructive and encouraging.

Teachers justly complain about the type of supervision just mentioned. Many supervisors are too cocksure; they permit themselves to believe that they are endowed with Solomon's wisdom and a dictator's infallibility; they take themselves too seriously. Often the supervisor gives evidence of needing supervision more than the teacher needs it.

In what spirit should the supervisor go about his work? Always he should keep an open mind; his methods should be impersonal and free from bias. He should realize that there are few procedures in education about which he can be sure, and nothing about which he can be dogmatic; at present there are many practices in education about which one person's opinion is as good as another's, and it has already been remarked that a science of education is only in its beginning. He should go about his work in a spirit of inquiry and humility; "Blessed are the meek . . ." Scripture would tell him. His methods should seldom, if ever, be *the* methods. He should make the teacher feel that he is his friend and is there to help him and his pupils, if possible. He should be a "brother" to the teacher rather than try to be a "king" over him. In brief, he should exemplify the spirit and the methods of democracy.

The committee of One Hundred on Classroom Teachers' Problems — a committee appointed by the National Education Association — in a questionnaire, which was sent to several thousand teachers, asked among other questions the following: "How would you expect a better co-operation

between supervisors and classroom teachers?" According to the report of the committee, many teachers who replied to this question had no suggestions to offer; they stated that in their school systems the supervision was satisfactory in every way.[1] Many teachers, however, made suggestions for improving the quality of the supervision; among the more frequently mentioned of these suggestions were the following:

1. Supervisors should have more actual classroom experience.
2. Supervisors should offer more constructive criticisms and practical suggestions and less theory.
3. There should be reports by teachers on supervisors.
4. More frequent conferences between teachers and supervisors would offer greater opportunity for exchange of ideas.
5. Supervisors' directions should be more definite.
6. Supervisors should have a greater appreciation of the demands of other departments.
7. Teachers should be encouraged to use their own initiative.
8. Meetings with the supervisor, where common problems are discussed and methods explained, would be mutually helpful.
9. More frequent and longer visits from the supervisor would result in a better understanding of the individual teacher's problems.
10. The teacher should be given an estimate of her work by the supervisor.

The beginning teacher needs help most and appreciates it most. If possible, every beginning teacher should be visited during the first week or two of school and many later visits also should be made. In fact, the principal, supervisor, or superintendent should pay a visit to the classroom of the beginning teacher on the first or second day of the school term if that is at all possible. This visit should not be made in the fashion of a sleuth, but in the spirit of a real friend. A supervisor who cannot do his work except through instilling fear into the hearts of those whom he supervises is not worthy of his calling; the fruits of such a supervisor are sure to be more evil than good.

Institutes and meetings. — Although teachers' meetings and institutes do not always realize their potentialities, they

[1] *National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings*, 1925, p. 200.

have undoubtedly been helpful in professionalizing teaching. Teacher participation in discussions of school problems cannot fail to give more zest and vitality to teaching.

In a previous paragraph it was affirmed that every teacher should be encouraged to become a member of the state and national education associations. Such membership should be secured because the teacher will be helped through the reading of the magazines and other literature of the associations and through attending the meetings of the associations; moreover, by joining them, the teacher will be giving his financial and moral support toward promoting the welfare of the profession and toward furthering the cause of education. Although the membership in these associations is growing by leaps and bounds, it is not yet what it should be. It is a sad commentary that only approximately one-fourth of the teachers of the nation are enrolled in the National Education Association, which is the foremost educational organization of the country. The members of most of the professions comparable to teaching have membership in their national organizations more frequently than teachers have; for example, approximately two-thirds of the dentists have membership in the American Dental Association and approximately two-thirds of the physicians are members of the American Medical Association.

Statistics show that teachers have more often joined the state education associations than they have joined the National Education Association. The state associations now have approximately four-fifths of the teachers of the nation as members.

Within a given school or school system two types of teachers' meetings may be held, namely, meetings for all teachers in the school or school system and meetings for the teachers of a certain grade, subject, or other special group. The program for the first type of meeting must necessarily be somewhat general in nature, whereas that of the second type can be built around problems of interest to a particular group.

The superintendent has the responsibility for encouraging and assisting in the organization of teachers' meetings, but he does not necessarily have to conduct all of them. Many meetings can, and should, be conducted by principals, supervisors, heads of departments, and classroom teachers. One of the first lessons which the neophyte school administrator must learn is that often, if not usually, there are other employees in the school or school system who know more about certain things than he; the school administrator should permit such persons to play leading rôles in teachers' meetings. Everyone honors a person who recognizes his shortcomings, and who would rather give credit to his co-workers than take it himself. School administrators who are "stuffed shirts," "horn blowers," or similar egoists are sure to be despised by their co-workers as well as by the general public. Great people are modest.

Teachers' meetings have two purposes: (1) to assist in the routine administration of the school or school system and (2) to increase the competence of those who attend them. Although the first purpose cannot be neglected, the emphasis should be upon the second. In these meetings the problems in education which are of the greatest interest and value to the largest number of teachers should be discussed. Teachers justly dislike meetings of the grievance, grumbling, or scolding type, the bulletin-board type, and the lecture-by-the-principal or -superintendent type. The live problems will not, of course, be the same in every school or school system, but the following list is suggestive of the types of problems which teachers generally are interested in discussing and which they usually need to discuss: the marking system and how to improve it; how to reduce failure and retardation; supervised study; how to measure teacher efficiency; the use of the school library; the extracurricular program of the school; how to meet individual differences among pupils; the revision of the curriculum; educational and vocational guidance; how to secure greater co-operation

between the home and the school; school discipline; improving the ethics of the profession; lesson planning; home study of pupils; character education; the merits of the junior high school organization; reviews of outstanding books on educational subjects; and reports of educational investigations. At these meetings, also, it is helpful to have demonstration lessons from time to time, and discussion by all the teachers of those lessons.

Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday are generally recognized to be the best days for holding teachers' meetings. For obvious reasons, Monday and Friday are usually the most difficult days in the week for teachers and their close finds teachers already tired and ready to go home; teachers' meetings on these days should therefore be avoided if at all possible.

Regarding the best hour for holding the meetings, there is no inviolable rule, although the general practice is to hold them immediately after school hours, particularly when the programs for the meetings are short. Another practice is to dismiss school during the last one or two periods of the school day and to hold the meetings wholly, or partly, on school time; most school officials, however, frown upon that practice, because time is taken from the pupils. Still another practice is to hold the meetings during the evening; this practice is particularly advantageous when part of the evening can be devoted to social or recreational activities.

A bulletin of the Research Division of the National Education Association summarizes the chief characteristics which teachers' meetings should have. Those characteristics are:[1]

1. Teachers feel that the meeting is an opportunity, not a requirement.
2. The meeting is carefully planned. The administrator sets the situation so as to insure the development of his teachers.
3. The meeting has a definite purpose.
4. Important issues of general interest to all teachers are discussed

[1] "A Handbook of Major Educational Issues," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, Vol. IV, p. 229.

rather than administrative details and announcements that can usually better be covered in a typewritten or mimeographed notice or bulletin.

5. Items are taken up in proper order and sequence. The meeting is conducted as though it were a business proposition. All trivial and irrelevant matter is avoided in order that the meeting may not be unduly prolonged.

6. Each meeting renders constructive cumulative service so that there is unity in the year's program, and something definite accomplished by the end of the year.

7. The discussion, for the most part, concerns matters of common interest to all those present. This means that there should be careful planning to decide which topics belong to the general meeting, and which to the special meeting. In the general meeting, educational problems of state and national as well as local interest will be discussed.

8. Many teachers take an active part. They feel free to ask questions and to discuss their work and their problems. Two or three teachers are not permitted to do all the talking. Sometimes the teacher who has the most self-confidence has the fewest ideas. The extent of teacher participation is the real test of a good group meeting.

9. A record of proceedings is kept and filed. This shows what was said, what action was taken, and acts as a check to show if any vital points are omitted.

10. General good spirit prevails — something is accomplished in promoting unity and cooperation throughout the school.

11. It is interesting to the teachers. The school administrator who forces his teachers to suffer martyrdom in long-drawn-out, dry-as-dust meetings is violating the principles of sound pedagogy.

12. When general rules are presented, each teacher is provided with a copy of points to be discussed.

13. Due notice is given when the meeting is not to be held at a regularly specified time and place.

14. It begins on time and, as far as possible, adjourns on time.

School visitation. — Teachers secure much of their methods and other practices from observing other teachers, although many of them imitate in a blind and aimless manner without exercising their critical and constructive faculties. Observing something at first hand is better than seeing a picture of it, reading about it, or hearing about it. Many schools and school systems consider school visitation to be so beneficial that they set aside a certain day or days each year

for the purpose of permitting some or all the teachers to visit other schools in the same school system or in other systems. In many school systems teachers are paid their regular salaries for the time spent in this visitation. In some instances advanced students in teacher-preparing institutions take charge of the classes while the regular teachers are visiting other schools.

Visitation should be made to the *best* schools or school systems available, because it is better to observe and to imitate ideal practice than average or mediocre practice. [1] Before planning a school visit, it should be expected that the teacher would make inquiry from his principal, supervisor, or superintendent regarding the best school or schools to visit; and he should be especially expected to make this inquiry and to secure official approval when he is paid for the time spent in the visitation.

In many school systems, demonstration and observation lessons in the various subjects of instruction are arranged. For example, such a lesson is arranged in sixth-grade arithmetic, and to it all the sixth-grade teachers of the school system are invited. These lessons are usually conducted on Saturday morning or during the late afternoon in order that teachers will not have to dismiss their classes to attend them.

Travel. — Another important means by which teachers can enlarge their intellectual horizon is through travel. The development of the automobile and airplane, the advent of good roads, and other facilities have made travel one of the chief educational factors. Probably the best way by which to gain acquaintance with anything is to see it. To see something is usually better than to read about it, to see pictures of it, or to hear about it, although these latter agencies help to supplement the first. Travel has given people an acquaint-

[1] A few of the larger school systems have organized one or more so-called "model" schools; the teachers and the equipment of these schools are selected especially for purposes of observation by other teachers in the school system.

ance with other peoples and other environments which they did not, and could not, possess in earlier days. The present-day teacher knows more about geography, history, and other subjects by first hand information than earlier teachers ever knew. Many school systems are stimulating travel during the summer months by basing salary increases on this the same as on attendance at summer school. Many school systems are giving leaves of absence for travel and for other means of professional improvement; this practice is discussed in the following paragraphs.

Leaves of absence. — In the more progressive school systems it is the policy to make it easy for school employees to take a leave of absence for study, travel, or anything calculated to lead to self-improvement.[1] The larger cities almost invariably make provision for such leaves; in the smaller cities, the towns, and the rural schools, the practice is less common. Few school systems, though, give either full or part salary during leaves of absence.

Summer-session and extension study. — Among the most significant data of modern educational statistics are those showing the attendance of teachers at the summer sessions of normal schools, colleges, and universities. Nearly one teacher in every three attends summer school regularly. Data showing the number of teachers who pursue extension or correspondence study courses during the school year are not available, but it is common observation that a large number of teachers are engaged in such study. Although it is admitted that in certain instances the summer-session and extension study courses have been pursued at the expense of the teacher's health or to the injury of the regular schoolwork, most teachers and school officials regard such courses as eminently worth while; they universally regard the courses as worth while when they are closely related to teaching,

[1] A few school systems provide for the exchange of teachers with other school systems; these exchanges usually extend for one or two semesters. Moreover, exchanges may often be advisable among schools of the same system, especially when the system is large.

and when they are not pursued at the expense of the teacher's health or to the harm of the regular schoolwork.

Many school systems now encourage summer school study by giving a financial reward for it. This aid is usually given on the basis of the number of credits earned. In most of the school systems, which give direct financial reward for summer school attendance, teachers are granted a permanent salary increase of a specified amount. In some cases a bonus of $50, $75, or $100 is given to teachers who earn a given number of credits at summer school.

Moreover, a few school systems have some plan of financially encouraging the taking of extension or correspondence study courses during the school year. The amount of the financial reward is usually determined by the number of credits earned. These practices assume that additional college credits beget increased teaching efficiency — an assumption that is frequently fallacious.

Democracy in school administration. — Most school systems today are being administered on a more democratic basis than formerly. In the early days the board of education or the superintendent "bossed" the schools without any suggestions from employees. At present, on the other hand, the superintendent consults his principals and teachers regarding the making and execution of school policies, and principals are likewise consulting their teachers. In other words, *democracy* in school administration has become fashionable.

Democracy in school administration is recommended for two reasons. In the first place, it energizes, makes more co-operative, and gives *esprit de corps* to the teachers and other employees. It leads school employees to make suggestions and makes them feel that they are a vital part of the school machinery and not merely a futile cog in it. In the second place, democracy is excellent for the school system. One person, even though he be a Solomon, cannot be omnipotent. The school administrator needs the suggestions of his co-workers. Teacher participation in school administration

means that the number of people who are thinking on the problems of the schools is increased several fold. One of the travesties of school administration today is that the suggestions of the teachers and other employees are infrequently secured. There comes to mind as this is written a school system of a large city which badly needs a revision of its curriculum. Why the superintendent of schools in that city does not appoint committees of teachers, principals, and supervisors to revise the curriculum is difficult to see; probably he labors under the delusion that administering a school system is a one-man job. Under proper leadership those employees could devise a most excellent curriculum — at least, the teachers of many similar school systems have done as much. What has been said concerning teacher participation in revising the curriculum is true also of most of the other phases of school administration.

CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

State requirements. — Every state has enacted statutes which govern the certification of teachers. Such statutes apply universally to teachers in the public schools, but in most states they apply also to teachers in the private and parochial schools. From the beginning of professional education the tendency has been for the states to assume the leading rôle in the control of teacher certification. In the early days the laws usually permitted local agencies to grant certificates; during recent years, however, the tendency has been for the state to take all power of granting certificates from the local communities. The theory underlying this tendency is that the state is obligated to assure the highest type of teaching personnel possible throughout the state, and that when local officials have the power to certificate teachers there is danger that the standards demanded by the state will not always be met.

Most states now grant, without further examination, either temporary or permanent certificates to all graduates of

standard teacher-preparing institutions of the state;[1] the provision nearly always applies to the public teacher-training institutions and it frequently applies also to the private colleges and universities which have been authorized to prepare teachers. Most of the states also make provision for the exchange of certificates with states having equal standards. Most of the states grant the graduates of their standard teacher-preparing institutions a temporary or provisional certificate of one to four years in length; at the end of that trial period, provided the teacher's experience has been satisfactory, a life, or permanent, certificate is granted.

A few states make provision for certificating teachers by examination. Such provisions are made for persons who are not graduates of standard teacher-preparing institutions and are therefore unable to qualify automatically for certificates. Provision is made for these examinations several times during the year at various places in the state; the questions for the examinations are usually prepared and marked by state officials.

Local requirements. — In no phase of educational endeavor does any state prohibit the local community from establishing higher standards than those provided for it. The state establishes minimum standards, not maximum ones. Many communities therefore require higher standards for the certification of teachers than the laws of the state prescribe. Many of the larger school systems, particularly the school systems of the larger cities, require all prospective teachers to pass a local examination in addition to meeting the requirements established by the state, and vacancies in the local school system are then filled from the list of candidates who have passed this local examination.

Another local requirement frequently found, especially in the city school systems, is teaching experience. In fact, in

[1] In addition to college graduation, prospective teachers should be required to pass a state-administered examination the same as physicians and members of many other professions.

the school systems of the larger cities such experience is almost a universal requirement. One or two years of experience is generally required. These larger school systems pay higher salaries than the small school systems and in consequence feel justified in requiring all new appointees to have had successful experience elsewhere. Such a requirement, of course, makes it necessary for beginning teachers to secure their experience in the rural and village schools.

In addition to the local requirements just mentioned, many school systems require special abilities on the part of their teachers. For example, they frequently require ability to coach an athletic team or to sponsor one or more other extracurricular activities; also many schools require some of their teachers to be able to teach special subjects such as music, drawing, or penmanship. These requirements are found especially in the smaller school systems in which most teachers begin their professional careers.

Requirements of standardizing agencies. — The laws of the various states have always been calculated to bring the schools to a higher and higher standard, and thousands of laws have been enacted for that purpose. The state laws, therefore, may be regarded as the chief standardizing agencies of the schools. In addition to these laws, which may be regarded as public standardizing agencies, there are many private or quasi-public standardizing agencies and these have performed a noteworthy service in raising the standard of education. Practically every section of the United States now has one of these private or quasi-public standardizing agencies. Usually the agencies operate in the secondary schools and the colleges, and do not operate in the elementary schools. The better known of the agencies are The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, The New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, The Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and The Northwest Association of

Secondary and Higher Schools. The chief function of the agencies is to raise education to a higher and higher plane. The associations have formulated certain standards which schools seeking and retaining membership in them must meet; for example, they have established standards for graduation, length of school year, size of staff, program of studies, pupil load, preparation of teachers, and teaching load. School officials should be familiar with these standards.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Are teachers doing enough to replenish the profession with the choice young men and women? Explain. Do you believe that the best people are now entering the teaching profession?

2. What steps, if any, do you believe a teacher-preparing institution should take to select its students? Why? What provisions does your state make for teacher-preparing institutions? Are they adequate?

3. How large should a school system be before it undertakes to establish a teacher-preparing school of its own? Explain. What factors other than size should a school system keep in mind in determining whether to establish a teacher-training school?

4. Should elementary teachers have as much preparation as high school teachers? Why or why not?

5. What effect, if any, do you believe the present oversupply of teachers will have upon entrance requirements to the profession? Explain.

6. Shall the teacher have as much preparation as the physician, that is, six or seven years? Why or why not? How do you account for teachers now having much less training than physicians?

7. Is there anything about the teacher's work which tends to make him provincial and queer? If so, how may it be avoided?

8. How do you explain the fact that so many teachers "get into a rut"? How may this be avoided?

9. How do you explain the fact that teachers often rate supervision very low as a helpful agency for training in service?

10. What are some types of research in which classroom teachers should be encouraged to engage?

11. How may the school administrator stimulate his teachers to read good books and magazines?

12. What are some excellent pedagogical magazines for each of the following groups of school employees: superintendents of schools, principals, elementary teachers, and high school teachers?

13. How do you explain the fact that so much of the pedagogical literature is "bunk and piffle" and is uninterestingly written? How may teachers help to correct this situation?

14. Many school systems give each teacher one day a year for visiting schools. Would you favor such a policy? If so, what steps would you take to assure that the day was spent in the most profitable manner?

15. What are the chief matters which the superintendent would probably want to take up during the first teachers' meeting of the year?

16. What are some matters which could best be brought to the teachers' attention through a circular letter rather than in a teachers' meeting?

17. As a rule, would you prefer a teacher with seven years of college training and no experience or a teacher with one year of training and ten years of experience? Why?

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Chapter VII

ADMINISTRATION OF SPECIAL TYPES OF TEACHER SERVICE

SUBSTITUTE-TEACHER SERVICE

Amount of teacher absence. — In these days of the ubiquitous automobile, railroad, motorbus, airplane, and other accident-causing features of a bustling twentieth century civilization, few people can hope to escape an incapacitating accident of some kind, particularly over a span of years. Casualty finally overtook even the charmed Achilles because of a vulnerable heel. Still fewer people can expect to escape sickness. In fact, only a very few, statistics inform us, go through a year without undergoing at least one siege of illness, and sooner or later sickness brings down all of us. Teachers are no exception to the rule. Although their work is relatively free from hazards, casualties befall them as well as other people.

Although personal illness or accident is the chief cause of teacher absence, there are many other causes such as the serious illness or death of friends and relatives and court attendance. Teacher absence is seasonal, attaining its peak in January, February, and March, and for perhaps unjustifiable reasons it is greater on Monday than on any other day of the week. It is greatest among elementary teachers, and more frequent among the women teachers than among the men. It is greater in certain schools and school systems than in others. The explanations for these variations are obvious and need not be discussed here.

The substitute-teacher problem defined. — When disability or other misfortune overtakes a teacher, a substitute must be provided. School "must go on" the same as the proverbial show. The substitute must be secured on time and be competent to carry on the duties of the regular teacher with as little loss to the pupils, as little inconvenience to the principal, and as little extra work as possible to the regular teacher when he returns. The difficulty of administering this service will be seen from the fact that most cases of disability occur without warning to the teacher. For example, the teacher learns upon awakening in the morning that his health will not permit him to perform his duties that day; thereupon he or his agent telephones either the principal of his school, the superintendent of schools, or other appropriate school official and announces that he will be unable to be at school. Often only an hour, or less, of notice is given. In that short interim a substitute must be notified, and expected to be at the appointed school when the school day begins. Only a well-planned routine will enable school officials to meet the problem expeditiously.

Rules and regulations governing substitute-teacher service. — In Chapter IV it was stated that every board of education should adopt a set of rules and regulations governing the administration of the schools. This document should include, among other details provisions for the administration of the substitute-teacher service. In the first place, it should stipulate that the superintendent of schools has the duty of administering this service; he should be given responsibility for recruiting the substitute personnel, for placing it, and for directing its work in all phases. In the second place, the rules and regulations should prescribe that only teachers who possess the state and local qualifications may be employed for substitute service; a certificate to teach should always be required — in fact, usually is required by state law.

Centralization of administration. — In the preceding paragraph it was recommended that the superintendent be

made responsible for the administration of the substitute-teacher service. This recommendation applies, of course, to all types of superintendents — to the city superintendent in city school systems and to the county superintendent, or the local superintendent in rural districts. All reports of absence, and all calls for substitutes, should come to, and be acted upon by, the superintendent or his duly appointed representative. Teachers should not be permitted to employ their own substitutes; in fact, teachers have no legal right to employ them. Because of his many other duties, the superintendent will often find it necessary to delegate such work to an assistant.[1] In the large systems, some person, or possibly several persons, will be given this task and none other to perform. Since the large systems require several substitute teachers every day, and since substitute teaching is unusually difficult, there would be advantages in employing a supervisor or supervisors especially for helping the substitute teachers.

To save their time in coming to school, in assigning teachers for substitute work an attempt should be made to keep them as close to their place of residence as possible. To this end, it is an excellent plan, especially in the large school system, to zone the school district and to have a capable list of substitutes for each of the various types of positions in each zone. These zones can be best marked on a map of the school district.

Recruiting a substitute personnel. — Every school system should recruit an adequate and qualified substitute personnel. The list must be greatly revised every year because of much larger shifts in it than in the list of regular teachers. It is desirable to have a few extra names on the substitute list because of the danger that an unusual amount of sickness will exhaust the supply. The best practice seems to be to have a substitute list amounting in numbers to approximately 15 per cent of the list of regular teachers. Since

[1] In small school systems the work might appropriately be delegated to the superintendent's secretary, provided she is given adequate direction and supervision by the superintendent.

teacher absence usually reaches its peak during January, February, and March, a scarcity of substitute teachers is likely to occur during these months, unless the substitute list is fairly large. Moreover, a greater amount of teacher absence occurs on Monday than on any other day of the week, and provision for this extra load must be made. Women teachers are more frequently disabled than men teachers and this fact will suggest more substitutes for the elementary school than for the secondary school because practically all teachers in the elementary school are women.

In recruiting the substitute personnel, a sufficient number of competent persons should be secured for the various school subjects and the several types of school service. Thus, there should be an ample number of kindergarten teachers, of teachers of the blind, gifted, and other special groups, of primary teachers, of intermediate-grade teachers, and of junior and senior high school teachers. Moreover, there should be an adequate number for each of the various high school subjects; for example, there should be the proper number of history teachers, English teachers, and teachers of each of the other subjects. In other words, specialists in the various teaching areas and departments should be employed rather than so-called "Jacks-of-all-trades."

Large school systems should consider the practicability of employing a few *full-time* substitutes, particularly for the elementary schools. School officials, in districts which employ full-time substitutes, report that such employees give much more satisfactory service than part-time ones. Such substitutes cost more, but they are often cheaper when results are considered. When the permanent substitutes are not busy in meeting classes for other teachers, they may be utilized for such work as coaching backward pupils or in serving as visiting teachers. In view, however, of the seasonal nature of absence, a school system cannot depend entirely upon permanent substitutes; some part-time employees should always be available on the substitute list.

Sources of substitutes. — The substitute personnel may be selected from such groups as the following: women teachers who when they married did not desire to continue as full-time teachers; experienced and inexperienced teachers who failed to secure regular employment; and advanced students from local and neighboring teacher-preparing institutions. These groups, though, are sure to contain many persons who are poorly qualified, and steps must be taken to thwart the desires of such persons to secure enrollment on the substitute list. In view of the difficulty of their work, all substitute teachers should be selected with even greater circumspection than is given to the selection of the regular teachers. Care must be exercised lest the substitute-teacher service become a dumping ground for the derelicts and other types of incompetents. Except in emergencies, high school pupils should not be used as substitutes.

Necessary records. — Adequate records are necessary for the proper administration of the substitute-teacher service. School officials should keep a record of the qualifications of each teacher on the substitute list and of other data which will aid in administering the service. Among other things, these records should indicate the departments or subjects which the teacher is competent to handle. The names of the substitute teachers should be listed and organized by zones, departments, and subjects so that when a call comes for a substitute teacher, the proper one may be readily selected and the telephone immediately used in notifying him where he is to go. In large school districts the substitute office should be acquainted with means of transportation in order that it may immediately advise the substitute regarding the most safe, convenient, and expeditious route and means of transportation to the school.

Data showing the efficiency with which each substitute performs his work should be systematically procured. It is necessary also to have a plan for ascertaining how many days each substitute teacher has worked during each pay-

roll period in order that his pay will arrive on time and be correct. The superintendent's office should request principals and heads of departments of schools in which substitute teachers are employed to make an efficiency report on each substitute. In the San Francisco, California, school systems, the blank shown in Fig. 15 is used by principals in rating the efficiency of substitute teachers. In order to secure greater uniformity in their rating, the San Francisco principals have been requested to use the following definitions of the 5-point scale:

1. (Superior) One of the most successful teachers you have had the opportunity to observe. Is better than 8 or 9 out of 10. You feel that you could speak of this teacher with real enthusiasm and would be glad to recommend for further substitute work.
2. (Very Good) This teacher falls, in the rating, about midway between superior (1) and average (3). Is better than 7 out of 10 teachers. You would be glad to retain this teacher as a substitute.
3. (Average) This teacher is fairly satisfactory but shows no particular outstanding qualities and no especial initiative. You would not object to retaining this teacher as a substitute for a limited time.
4. (Below Average) This teacher falls, in the rating, about midway between average (3) and inferior (5). Is excelled by 7 or 8 out of 10 teachers. On the basis of this rating, a recommendation regarding retention as a substitute in the department will be given with much hesitation.
5. (Inferior) This teacher's work is not satisfactory enough to justify retention. Under careful counsel and guidance not sufficient progress has been made to give hope of this person being even a fair substitute.

In order that when he returns to his duties the regular teacher may know what the substitute teacher has accomplished, the latter should leave a written report of the work which he has covered and of the pupil assignments and work schedules for the next day. Most regular teachers report that when they return to their work they inherit much extra work from the substitute teacher. The leaving of records by substitute teachers will reduce such extra work to a minimum and will enable the regular teacher immediately to take up the work where the substitute stopped.

REPORT ON THE EFFICIENCY OF SUBSTITUTE TEACHERS

Name _____ Date _____ 194_____

Dates of Substitution _____

Subjects or Grade taught _____

	Superior 1	*Very Good* 2	*Average* 3	*Below Average* 4	*Inferior* 5
1. PROFESSIONAL:					
(a) Interest in teaching as a profession					
(b) Skill as an instructor					
(c) Knowledge of subject					
(d) Co-operation with principal					
(e) Progressive attitude					
2. PERSONAL:					
(a) Attitude toward pupils					
(b) Culture and refinement					
(c) Poise and self-control					
(d) Health					
(e) Energy					
3. CLASSROOM PROCEDURE:					
(a) Preparation of lessons					
(b) Methods of presenting lessons					
(c) Ability to hold interest of class					
(d) Stimulate students with desire for additional training					
(e) Discipline					
(f) Appearance of school-room, blackboards, books, etc.					

Do you recommend that this teacher be retained as a substitute in subject taught? _____

Encircle the ONE rating which most nearly summarizes your estimate of this teacher as a substitute 1 2 3 4 5.

Number of times substitute was visited by principal, vice-principal, or head of (*underline*)

department during the above dates _____

REMARKS: _____

_____

_____ _____

School *Principal*

FIG. 15. — Rating Blank for Substitute Teachers, Used in San Francisco, California.

Helps for substitutes. — The following suggestions are given to school administrators who desire to help the substitute teacher to succeed:

1. Each substitute should be provided with a copy of the course of study in each of the subjects which he will be called upon to teach. This material should be furnished him at the beginning of the school year, and it should be expected that he become familiar with it as soon as possible. In addition to the course of study, a copy of the rules and regulations of the school system and other suggestions governing the substitute-teacher service should be handed to the substitute teachers for their help and guidance. In Rochester, New York, the director of teacher employment and certification provides the following general instructions for substitute teachers in the elementary schools:

(1) Respond promptly to telephone calls. Most of the calls come between 8 and 8:45 A.M. *Avoid having others answer the phone, as much delay and misunderstanding are caused by relayed messages.* We will state the number of the school, the nature of work to which you will be assigned; also the street car or bus route.

(2) Start promptly for the school. Upon arrival, report at the principal's office. Either he or an assistant will direct you to the room. Secure the regular teacher's plan book to assist you in the review work and to carry forward new work.

(3) Always call this office promptly before 5 P.M. on the day which terminates your assignment. Give your name, the school in which you substituted, when you finished — whether it was at noon or afternoon. If you are not given another assignment from this office within three weeks after "checking out," kindly notify us.

(4) Always leave your name at the school office. This is necessary so that your time may be recorded on the payroll.

(5) If you are ill or for any other reason do not wish to be called again for a short time, kindly inform this office so that we shall not waste time calling you. We shall replace your name on the active list when you ask us to do so.

(6) If you are also registered on the junior or senior high school substitute lists and are called out by one of these schools, kindly notify this office; also let us know when you finish this assignment so that we may place your name on our elementary list.

(7) Your success as a substitute will improve your chances for a permanent assignment.

2. The superintendent of schools, or any other person who is in charge of the substitute-teacher service, should call a meeting of all substitute teachers at the beginning of the school year at which time there should be a discussion of the substitute-teacher work. Such meetings are almost always held — and with profit — for the regular teachers. The advantages of such meetings for the substitute teachers should be even greater than for the regular ones.

3. For the assistance of the substitute teachers the regular teachers should be requested to prepare the following: a seating chart of the class; a copy of the daily program; and a brief outline of the work for the next day. This information should be filed in the teacher's desk or in another place where it may be readily found by the substitute teacher.

Pay for absence. — The fact that teachers are frequently incapacitated brings to them several problems of vital concern. "How may the loss of income be made up?" is the chief problem which harasses most teachers who are confronted with disability. Because of the extra expense, the loss of income is felt more during sickness or accident than at any other time.

School officials as well as teachers are interested parties to the solution of this problem. School officials are under obligation to provide those conveniences which assure the best possible working conditions; regard for the efficiency of the service demands this. They are also obligated to the public to see that there is no extravagant or unnecessary expenditure of public funds; they must, therefore, guard against malingering and other unwarranted absence on the part of any employees. A plan for disability payment which will be fair both to teachers and to their employers is the desideratum, and few school systems have yet formulated such a plan which may be called ideal.

Both teachers and boards of education have devised

various plans of giving pecuniary aid to teachers who are disabled. As their chief contribution, teachers have frequently organized loan funds and other mutual benefits for their disabled colleagues. As their chief contribution, boards of education, particularly those of the cities, usually give a certain number of days of full pay or of part pay each year for disability. The larger school systems usually give a greater number of days of pay than the smaller ones. Many school systems give full pay for a few days — usually five to ten days — and part pay for a few additional days. There are, of course, dozens of different plans in use in the school systems of the nation, these varying from "no pay" to "full pay indefinitely." Such plans, though, in the rural schools are almost unknown; in fact, an unfortunately common practice there is to close the school when the teacher is incapacitated.

Various investigations have shown that there is a high correlation between the amount of absence and the number of days of pay given for disability. For example, school systems which give ten days of pay for disability have approximately twice as much absence as school systems which give five days.[1] This makes anyone wonder again whether much cannot be accomplished toward securing a better administration of the provisions for disability leave. In a certain city of approximately a million population an economy of $16,000 in one semester was effected in the administration of disability leave by requesting the teachers to fill out a blank form, such as Fig. 16, showing that they were incapacitated; before that time no written statement of any sort had been required. It would not seem to be "red tape" or "inhuman administration" to go a step further than this and require that anyone who desired pay for disability must secure a physician's certificate just as is required by all in-

[1] These data do not prove that teachers as a group take "all that they can grab"; there is the possibility that, in school systems which give only a few days of pay for disability leave, many teachers remain at school when they should be at home.

dustrial insurance companies; the tendency in theory and practice is toward requesting such a certificate. Moreover, it would be worth while to have all teachers know the purposes of the disability-leave policy, and to secure their co-operation in efficiently and honestly administering it. All Judas Iscariots should be reformed, if possible; when they cannot be reformed, they must be thwarted.

Another plan of payment for disability, which has much to commend it, is that of permitting the days given for disability leave to cumulate from year to year. At present, however, only a few school systems provide cumulative leave for their teachers. Practices vary regarding the number of years over which the days for disability leave are permitted to cumulate, or regarding the total number of days which may be cumulated. Most school systems limit the number of years over which the days may cumulate; the usual limit is from two to five years; a few systems, however, place the number of years at ten, fifteen, or twenty.

The workings of the cumulative-leave plan may be made more clear by briefly describing the plan of a certain school system. This system gives ten days of full pay each year for disability leave. It provides, however, that if the teacher does not use all of the ten days, the days remaining may carry over to the next year and cumulate from year to year until a hundred days have been cumulated. After ten years of uninterrupted service, if the teacher should have a long period of disability, he could secure a hundred days of pay, or if he resigned from the school system, he would receive full pay for that number of days.

One argument for the cumulative-leave plan is that it gives protection against an extended disability, whereas the flat allowance of a certain number of days per year does not. Another argument for the plan is that it encourages regularity of attendance, whereas the flat allowance oftentimes places a premium on malingering. It is argued against the plan

EXCUSE FOR ABSENCE OF SCHOOL EMPLOYEES

In all cases of absence from duty on the part of teachers or other employees of the Board of Education, and if compensation is anticipated during such absence, the absentee shall fill out this absence report, showing the duration of the absence, the date, and a full explanation of the cause of the absence.

Absence began: _____

Returned to duty: _____

Complete statement of the cause of the absence: _____

_____

_____

I hereby certify that the above statement is in accordance with the facts.

_____
Employee's Signature

_____
School or Department

FIG. 16. — A Form Which May Be Used by School Employees in Stating Their Excuse for Absence. (These reports should be filed permanently as a part of the teacher's record, and tabulations and studies should be made of them from time to time.)

that it tends to encourage teachers to remain at work when the condition of their health does not warrant it.

Still another, newer type of plan is that of giving a salary bonus to those teachers who perform their duties every day. Following is a letter from a superintendent, which explains the working of the bonus plan in his school system:

> Five years ago we instituted a bonus system which has enabled us to reduce our teachers' absences to a minimum. In addition to this we have found that the plan keeps the whole teaching force satisfied with our

method of taking care of what is sometimes a troublesome problem.

We accept ten days of absence on the teacher's word regarding the cause of her absence. We do not require a doctor's certificate because no teacher will remain out longer than her physical condition requires, since each day of absence caused by disability means a loss of $5.00 to her.

Our bonus system gives to each teacher the sum of $50.00 at the close of the school year for perfect attendance, three days being allowed at all times with no deduction on account of a death in the immediate family. From each day of absence on account of disability, the teacher loses $5.00 from this $50.00 bonus, although her regular salary goes on just the same; thus, if a teacher is absent for ten days on account of disability she has exhausted her bonus of $50.00. She would receive her full salary for the ten days so lost, but following this period per diem deductions are made from the monthly salary. Should a teacher be absent five days during the school year, she would have no regular salary deduction, but would receive only $25.00 at the end of the school year. Our practice has been to include whatever bonus is due the teacher in the salary for the last month.

Under the old system of allowing ten days of disability leave with full pay, I found many willful violators of the rule. Also, the scheme tended to penalize those teachers who were faithful and conscientious and who took good care of their health. We feel that the bonus system has worked wonders with the regular attendance of our teachers, and has helped in keeping up a fine spirit among the personnel.

A final plan has to do with group health and accident insurance provided by insurance companies. During recent years the teachers of many communities have purchased group health and accident policies. This type of insurance gives excellent protection at a much smaller cost than in individual policies. So far, according to available information, the teachers are paying all the premiums, but there would not seem to be any reason why the teachers and the board of education should not share the cost. Arrangements might be made, for example, whereby boards of education would pay a certain percentage of the premium on a group disability policy and teachers who were interested in cooperating would pay the remainder; unfortunately, though, the laws of some states do not now permit the expenditure of public funds for this purpose.

Pay for substitute teachers. — Most school systems do not have a salary schedule for substitute teachers, but pay all of them a flat wage for each day served. Most of them also pay the same wage to all substitutes irrespective of preparation, experience, and other qualifications. The wage paid is usually approximately two-thirds of the daily salary of the regular teacher. While no objection can be raised to the practice of paying substitutes slightly less than regular teachers, it would seem desirable for every school system to formulate a schedule of pay which would take account of the qualifications of the substitutes. To pay all the same per diem is unfair both to the substitutes and to the public. An example of a salary schedule for substitutes which takes account of qualifications is that of Springfield, Massachusetts; that schedule is shown herewith:

SUBSTITUTE TEACHERS' SALARY SCHEDULES

Springfield, Massachusetts

School Division	*Years of Experience*								
	0	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*
Elementary	$5.00	$5.50	$6.00	$6.50	$7.00*	$7.50			
Junior High	5.50	6.00	6.50	7.00	7.50*	8.00	$8.50	$9.00	
Senior High	6.00	6.50	7.00	7.50	8.00*	8.50	9.00	9.50	$10.00

* Highest maximum salary for substitute teachers entering service in school system.

1. The schedules for substitute teachers cover actual services by the day.
2. In the appointment of substitute teachers strong preference shall be given to those who possess educational qualifications for regular service. The waiver of such qualifications in the employment of a substitute teacher shall not be considered a waiver of these requirements in respect to the possible regular employment of such substitute teacher.
3. On appointment salaries of substitute teachers shall be fixed by the superintendent of schools within the limits of these schedules.
4. Credit for more than three years of experience outside of Springfield will not be given on these schedules.
5. Temporary appointments may be made to fill positions which will

be vacant for at least one full semester and salaries of such appointees shall be determined in accordance with the rules governing admission of new teachers to regular teaching positions.

An estimate of the cost of substitute service should, of course, be included in the annual school budget. This estimate can best be made on basis of the experience of previous years. Various studies have shown that the average cost of substitute service is approximately 1.50 per cent of the cost of regular teaching service. The cost in elementary schools is slightly higher than the average just mentioned, and the cost in secondary schools is slightly lower.

SUMMER AND EVENING SCHOOL TEACHER SERVICE

Summer schools and evening schools have had a huge development during recent years, especially in the larger school systems. Summer schools have been organized primarily for the regular students of the school, especially for those who have failed during the academic year. Evening schools have been organized entirely for the adult population of the community; they have recently had a tremendous growth and there are now few school systems which do not have adult education programs in operation during the evening.

In selecting teachers for such schools the same critical standards which were recommended for the selection of substitute teachers should be followed. The common practice of regarding such positions as sinecures for the needy unemployed and the politically faithful cannot be condoned. It should not be forgotten that such service is more difficult to perform than regular day school teaching.

As a rule, regular day school teachers should be excluded from service in summer schools and evening schools, especially the latter; in all cases the amount of such service should be controlled if it is not entirely prohibited. This recommendation is made because teachers have only so much energy and strength and most of it should be devoted to their regular

work. Moreover, such a practice permits the distribution of teaching positions among a larger number of competent persons. When other competent persons are not available, consideration may appropriately be given to the employment of regular day school teachers.

Although most school systems insist upon experienced teachers for summer and evening school service, a few school systems report excellent results with inexperienced teachers. In Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, for example, the practice is to use inexperienced teachers for these services and to make them recruiting agencies for regular day school positions. The excellent experience of Pittsburgh with this practice is no doubt due to the careful selection and supervision of all teaching novitiates.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the dangers faced by teachers and the schools when no relief plan for absence is in force?

2. Which of the four plans, if any, of helping the absent teacher do you prefer? Explain your views. What better plan would you suggest?

3. Approximately how many substitute teachers should a school system of 500 regular teachers have on its list? How many of these might feasibly be full-time substitutes? What duties might the full-time substitutes perform when they were not doing substitute work?

4. From what groups would you try to recruit a substitute personnel for a school system over which you might be the superintendent?

5. What arguments can be given for requiring substitute, summer school, and evening school teachers to have better than average qualifications?

6. In many school systems the entrance to a regular teaching position is usually through the substitute or some other type of service. Do you favor such a practice? Why or why not?

7. Under what conditions, if any, would you favor the use of high school students as substitute teachers? Why? Could the students from the local teacher-training institution be practically used for this purpose? Explain.

8. Outline and defend a schedule of pay for the substitute teachers of a given school system.

9. Would it be feasible to require teachers who request pay for dis-

ability to present a physician's certificate certifying the disability? Why or why not?

10. What are the reasons for more disability occurring on Monday than on any other day of the week?

11. What steps might school officials take to assist teachers to maintain a higher standard of health and physical efficiency?

12. What conditions make the work of the substitute teacher difficult? How may the superintendent and principals assist in making these conditions more favorable? How may the regular teachers assist?

13. Should regular day school teachers be employed as summer or evening school teachers? Explain.

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Chapter VIII

SALARIES AND PENSIONS OF TEACHERS

IMPORTANCE OF SUFFICIENT PAY

Salaries and qualifications. — In an earlier chapter it was remarked that the efficiency of the school is determined primarily by the qualifications of the teacher of the school. "The teacher is the school" is a time-worn truism. Although there are many exceptions to the rule — many more than there should be and need be — it is usually true that the higher the salary the better the qualifications of the person who receives the salary. When selection is made honestly and intelligently, a salary of $2000 will purchase a higher type of qualifications than a salary of $1000. In the long run the public secures approximately the grade of ability and service for which it is willing to pay. It cannot reasonably expect to purchase a $2000 grade of ability and service with a $1000 salary. Teachers are like other persons in their desire to earn as much as possible. They require the same necessities and desire the same comforts which other persons need and desire. They are not ascetics, and they are glad that the days of "boarding around" are past.

In the first place, a sufficiently high schedule of pay is needed to attract the best young people into the teaching profession. A low schedule will not attract such persons. The "joy of service," albeit potent, is not a sufficient magnet. Although Moses says in Deuteronomy 8:3 that "man doth not live by bread only," this sage remark does not imply that man could live without *any* bread. "Bread is the staff of

life," and money is necessary to secure it. In the second place, the schedule of pay must be high enough to keep the choicest spirits in the profession and to make them happy in their work. The teaching profession must constantly compete with other businesses, trades, and professions; if its standards of pay are low compared with other vocations, there is danger that its best members will be lost to other vocations. In the third place, the salary must be high enough to enable the teacher to take his proper place in community life and to maintain a standard of living equal to or approximating that of the other cultured people of the community.

Other factors being equal, teachers will tend to gravitate to the school systems which pay the larger salaries. A school system which has a low schedule of pay for its teachers is in danger of losing its well-qualified teachers, if it is fortunate enough to have any, to school systems which pay larger salaries — or what is worse, especially for society and the teaching profession — losing them to other businesses, trades, or professions. In any campaign to raise the qualifications of its teaching personnel, the first question on which school officials should seek information is whether the pay of the personnel is adequate. If the pay is too small, means must somehow be found to increase it. If the local community cannot afford the additional funds which are requisite for this purpose, county or state aid, or some other source of revenue, must somehow be brought to the rescue. "A well-qualified teacher in every classroom" should be a first slogan of the schools. Qualified teachers at almost any price are an excellent investment for a community. Such teachers are expensive, but ignorance among a people is much more expensive. H. G. Wells trenchantly says: [1]

> The driving force that makes either peace or war is engendered where the young are taught. The teacher, whether mother, priest, or schoolmaster, is the real maker of history; rulers, statesmen, and soldiers do but work out the possibilities of cooperation or conflict the teacher

[1] *The Salvaging of Civilization*, p. 39.

creates. . . . The politicians and masses of our time dance on the wires of their early education.

SALARIES IN TEACHING AND IN OTHER VOCATIONS

In campaigns to increase the salaries of teachers, hundreds of local, state-wide, and nation-wide studies of teachers' salaries have been made during recent years. These studies have shown not only the salaries of teachers in the several types of school services, but some of them have shown also the economic position of teachers compared with workers in

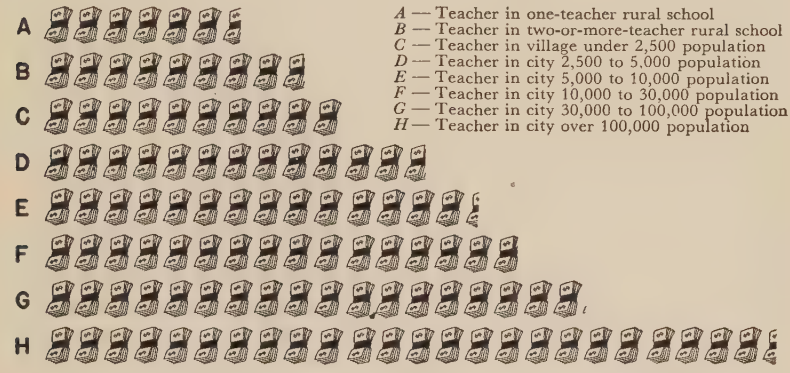


FIG. 17. — Annual Salaries of Classroom Teachers. (From "The Status of the Teaching Profession," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, March, 1940, Vol. XVIII, p. 60.)

other fields of endeavor. The high points of some of the more important of these studies are reviewed herewith.

Salaries in teaching. — Since its establishment in 1923 the Research Division of the National Education Association has been the most prolific agency in collecting and disseminating data on teachers' salaries and in showing the unfavorable economic position of teachers compared with other workers. Similar data have been collected and disseminated regularly by most of the state education associations, by the United States Office of Education, and by many local education associations.

Studies made by these organizations show that, although

the tendency is toward greater uniformity in salary when qualifications are equal, salaries still vary widely; they vary from state to state, from school system to school system in the same state, from secondary school to elementary school, and from subject to subject. Teachers in the one-room schools receive the smallest salaries and teachers in the secondary schools receive the largest ones. Salaries are lowest in the rural, the village, and the small city school systems, and highest in the large city school systems. These disparities result in a large turnover annually in the lower paid positions and in a constant and inevitable drift of the teachers in those positions toward the higher paid positions. Practically all teachers in the cities today started their careers in the rural and village school systems.

Thousands of teachers receive less than $500 annually — in fact, in a few states the average annual salary is less than $500. By far the lowest salaries are found in the southern states. In only the state of New York is the average annual salary more than $2000 and in only a few states is it more than $1500. The wealth of any state is the chief determinant of teachers' salaries in that state.

Salaries in other vocations. — Any worth-while study of the adequacy of teachers' salaries should compare them with the wages of other workers in the community in which the study is being made. Such comparison should be made because the incomes of the people of a community largely determine the standard of living of the people of the community — a standard which teachers are expected to meet or to approximate. "When in Rome we are expected to live as Romans." If wearing patched clothing is fashionable, and if the simple life is the mode of the people of a community, then teachers will not need such a large salary to maintain a respectable standard of living compared with other people. If, however, most of the people have many luxuries, then teachers must possess comforts at least and for securing them larger salaries will be necessary.

Although the economic position of the teacher, compared with other workers, has been improving during recent years, it is not yet what it should be. The remark has often been made, and it has never been contradicted, that the teacher's work constitutes the bulwark of the nation. The cruel fact is, however, that this well-founded theory has been disregarded by society in making its salary awards, because the pay of the teacher is much less than that of other workers who have equal standards of preparation. Of course, there will probably continue to be some differential between the pay of teachers and that of workers in industry because of such advanatages of teaching as its short hours, frequent holidays, healthfulness, tenure, and social service. The members of a profession worthy of the name do not work for salary alone; they want to give much more than they receive.

In comparing teachers' salaries with those of other workers the disparity of teachers' salaries cannot be justified by the argument that teachers work only eight, nine, or ten months, whereas workers in other vocations must labor twelve months. Persons who offer this argument tend to forget that the teacher must live twelve months although he is paid for a less number of months; expenses continue whether income does or not. They forget also that most teachers spend their vacation months in attending the summer sessions of colleges and universities or in taking other steps to improve themselves for their work. They further forget that to improve one's competence usually requires money. Most teachers who are worth their salt really work during the twelve months of the year; they are busily engaged either in teaching or in improving themselves for teaching.

ADVANTAGES OF A SALARY SCHEDULE

Advantages to school officials. — Of almost equal importance with the amount of salary is the way in which the salary is determined. As an aid in determining the amount of salary to be paid the teachers, a salary schedule should

be devised. Such a schedule is advantageous both to the administration and to the teacher. To the administration it is a salary plan. In particular, it aids in budget making, because it indicates with a high degree of accuracy how much money will be needed during each year of the next few years to meet by far the largest item in the school budget, namely, teachers' salaries; without such a forecast the budget estimate for this item of expense must be chiefly a guess, and it will seldom be an "educated guess."

Advantages to the teacher. — A salary schedule is advantageous to the teacher because it tends to assure that at least approximate justice will be given the teacher. When a schedule is in operation the teacher knows what his expectancy in salary will be in two, five, ten, or some other number of years. When there is no schedule the teacher is left to secure as much as he can, and the school officials are left to pay no more than they must.

When there is no schedule, the salary of each teacher must be decided entirely upon the merit of the teacher. At first thought this appears to be advantageous, because the desideratum is to make the salary reward *merit*. The difficulty, however, is to reward merit. When the "Solomons of the profession" do not agree on what a good teacher is — on what constitutes merit — imagine the difficulty which the "school official up the creek" must have in distributing salary awards on basis of merit. Without a salary plan, politics, pull, and other types of partiality are likely to be potent considerations in determining salaries. There is danger that those teachers who are aggressive and "nervy" will be paid too much, whereas those who are modest, though efficient, will be cheated.

Merit versus automatic schedules. — A salary schedule which attempts to reward merit — and that every schedule should attempt to do — cannot be made to operate automatically. Any schedule which gives the salary awards according to a hard and fast formula cannot escape paying a large

percentage of teachers too highly nor can it avoid cheating another large percentage. Genius knows no law and merit cannot be determined by a formula.

Most of the salary schedules in operation today give the salary awards wholly on the basis of college preparation and experience. Thus, after the minimum amount of preparation, say two, three, or four years, has been secured, an increase in salary of $50, $75, or $100 for each additional one-third or one-half year of preparation is paid. Likewise, $50, $75, or $100 for each year of teaching experience is paid. Such a schedule for teachers is shown in Table I, and such a schedule for principals, which is used in the same school system (Oakland, California), is reproduced herewith:

A SALARY SCHEDULE FOR SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

I. Schools of Less Than 12 Teaching Positions

A. Principals of elementary schools under 12 teachers.
Salary of classroom teachers based on certification and experience, plus $180.

B. Increments to be added — based on number of teaching positions.

1. 6 to 9 teachers $180
2. 10 to 11 teachers $300

C. Increments based on years of experience as principal.

1. 2 years and less than 4 . . . . . $180
2. 4 years and less than 7 300
[1]3. 7 years or more 420

II. Schools of 12 or More Teaching Positions

A. Certification (Basal Certificate).

1. Elementary — $3000 2. Junior High — $3240
3. Senior High — $3480

B. Increments based on number of teaching positions.

Teaching Positions			
1. 12–14	$180	6. 45–59	$1380
2. 15–19	420	7. 60–69	1620
3. 20–24	660	8. 70–89	1860
4. 25–29	900	9. 90 or over . . .	2100
5. 30–44	1140		

[1]The last increment of $120 will not be granted to principals with less than two years' experience in Oakland.

C. Increments based on years of experience as principal.
   1. 2 years and less than 4 . . . . . $120
   2. 4 years and less than 7 240
   [1]3. 7 years or more 420

D. Added increment based on any administrative factor approved by the Superintendent.

TABLE I. — A TYPICAL SALARY SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS
(Used in Oakland, California)

Years of Experience	*Kindergarten and Elementary Credential*		*Junior High Credential or Equivalent*		*High School Credential or Equivalent*	
	A	B	A	B	A	B
Two years' and less than three years' experience	$1380	$1500	$1500	$1620	$1740	$1860
Three years' and less than four years' experience	1500	1620	1620	1740	1860	1980
Four years' and less than five years' experience	1620	1740	1740	1860	1980	2100
Five years' and less than six years' experience	1740	1860	1860	1980	2100	2220
Six years' and less than seven years' experience	1860	1980	1980	2100	2220	2340
Seven years' and less than eight years' experience	1980	2100	2100	2220	2340	2460
Eight years' and less than nine years' experience	2100	2220	2220	2340	2460	2580
Nine years' and less than ten years' experience	2220	2340	2340	2460	2580	2700
Ten years' or more experience	2340	2460	2460	2580	2700	2820

NOTE: A — first year in Oakland; B — after first year in Oakland.

Strange to say, many of these automatically operating schedules have been called "merit" schedules by their authors. Such schedules, though, are *not* merit schedules,

[1] The last increment of $180 will not be granted to principals with less than two years' experience in Oakland.

because college preparation and experience are not necessarily measures of merit. Many doctors of philosophy are inferior teachers, and there are many excellent teachers who have only one, two, or three years of professional preparation. Some members of that time-honored society — Phi Beta Kappa — are "flops" as teachers. Likewise some of the most inefficient teachers are those of long experience, and some of the most efficient are those of short experience. If age and experience were a sure index of accomplishment, Methuselah would be the greatest man in history; that good man, though, is remembered only for his unexcelled age. A salary schedule which gives its awards wholly for preparation and experience, or which operates automatically toward all teachers, cannot fail to pay many teachers much more than they deserve and many others much less than they deserve. Such a schedule will appeal to the "armchair" school official who likes to routinize as many procedures as possible, and will please the "time-serving" type of teacher, but it is sure to cause discontent on the part of the more efficient teachers and make them attempt to secure employment elsewhere.

Requisite to the operation of a merit type of salary schedule is a plan for the rating of teachers; such plans are described in the following chapter. Most school systems which use such a schedule rate teachers at least twice a year according to the following categories: A, excellent; B, superior; C, good; D, fair; E, poor. The annual increments usually provided for the various categories are the following: A, $100; B, $75; C, $50; teachers rated D or E usually receive no increment. When such a plan of distributing salaries is used, the percentages of teachers placed in the five different categories should approximate the normal probability curve; that is, approximately 5 per cent should receive the mark of A; approximately 20 per cent, B; approximately 50 per cent, C; approximately 20 per cent, D; and approximately 5 per cent, E.

Super-level salaries. — During recent years a few school systems have adopted salary schedules which provide extra compensation for teachers, principals, and supervisors who give outstanding service. These awards are in addition to those provided by the automatic schedule and to receive them evidence of superior service must be presented. When it is properly administered, such a plan of recognition does much to break up the lock step found in most salary schedules. It postpones contact with the inevitable stonewall over which even the artist teacher is unable to climb to a higher salary.

In Pittsburgh, which was one of the first school systems to adopt the super-level type of salary schedule, the board of education has arbitrarily set a limit of 45 per cent for the employees who may secure super-level salaries. These employees are selected from the whole system and not necessarily from individual schools. The 45 per cent may be awarded according to the following schedule:

15 per cent may receive one super-level increment, or $200 annually, in addition to the automatic maximum.
12 per cent may receive two super-level increments, or $400 annually.
9 per cent may receive three super-level increments, or $600 annually.
6 per cent may receive four super-level increments, or $800 annually.
3 per cent may receive five super-level increments, or $1000 annually.

THE SINGLE-SALARY SCHEDULE

Its features. — During recent years there has been a widespread movement toward the adoption of the so-called single-salary schedule; that movement still continues apace. Such schedules are usually found in the school systems of the larger cities. A single-salary schedule is simply one which gives equal pay for equal qualifications and equal service. It has been designed primarily for the purpose of securing better qualified teachers for the elementary schools and for rewarding them more adequately. It is common knowledge that the teachers of the elementary schools do not have nearly as much college preparation as the high school teachers.

During recent years the typical school system has required graduation from a regular four-year college course for teaching in its high schools, but has considered that the completion of two years of college work was adequate for teaching in the elementary schools. It is coming to be recognized, however, that teaching in the elementary school is as difficult, if not more difficult, than teaching in the high school. Because they are more mature, high school pupils will often learn in spite of poor teaching. Since he has more fully acquired the tools of knowledge, the high school pupil does not need as much help from the teacher as does the pupil of the elementary school. When the fact that the pupil is laying his educational foundation in the elementary school and the importance of this foundation is realized, the importance of having the best teachers possible in the early years of the pupil's educational career is more fully comprehended. If a distinction in the amount of preparation between elementary and high school teachers must be made, it should unhesitatingly be made in favor of the teachers of the elementary school.

Its advantages. — The single-salary schedule makes it possible to secure a better type of teaching ability for the elementary schools because under its provision, if their qualifications are equal, the elementary teachers will receive as much salary as the high school teachers. Such a schedule enables school officials to place teachers where they desire to go and where they will give the best services. It eliminates cliques which often obtain among elementary and secondary school teachers; it promotes democracy.

The single-salary schedule also pays women teachers the same amount as men teachers, provided their qualifications are equal. Whether men teachers should receive more salary than women teachers has always been a much-debated question and the question has not yet been answered. Practically all studies of teachers' salaries show that men teachers receive a slightly higher salary than women teachers. Whether this difference is just, is the question; present practice is not neces-

sarily the best practice with regard to anything. School officials should more devoutly worship "the god of what ought to be" than "the god of what is." They should follow the proper road rather than the easy one.

Persons who affirm that men teachers should be paid more than women generally present two arguments: first, men teachers have dependents and therefore have greater financial responsibilities than women; second, the pupils, particularly those in the upper grades, need to come under the influence of men teachers in order that they may develop normal lives. What are the merits of these arguments?

Regarding the first argument — namely, that men teachers have dependents whereas women teachers do not — it may be said that women teachers frequently have dependents the same as men teachers. There are many men teachers without dependents just as there are many women teachers without any. It is impossible, therefore, to see the justice of paying *all* members of a group an additional salary because the majority, or a few, of the members of the group happen to have dependents. If an additional salary is to be paid for dependents, it is just that it should be paid only to those who *really have* them. This principle, if placed into operation, should be applied to women and men alike.[1]

Regarding the second argument, which is to the effect that the influence of the masculine personality is needed in the schools, particularly in the upper grades, this is now entirely a matter of opinion; and mere opinion proves nothing. Although the writer would like to see more men teachers in the schools, he is not aware of any objective evidence showing that the influence of the masculine personality is a *sine qua non* for a well-rounded development of the pupil. It must be concluded that teaching ability is an individual matter and that it is

[1] The policy of basing the salary partly on marital status and the number of dependents is fairly common in European countries, especially France. It is here predicted that the policy will soon be adopted, as it should be, in this country. When it is adopted, the schools will be able to secure more men, especially *real* men, as teachers.

fallacious to attribute certain invariable traits or abilities to a given sex. Many men teachers are more "sissy" than the typical woman teacher, and many women teachers are "mannish." Research would probably show that good teaching is not a resultant of sex, but that it is a resultant of intelligence and other qualities. "Sissies" should not be tolerated as teachers; neither should their female counterpart. Teachers should be normal persons, living normal lives.

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPLES OF SALARY SCHEDULING

Herewith are briefly summarized the chief principles which should be kept in mind in framing a salary schedule for teachers:

1. On the theory that the larger the salary the better the qualifications of those who receive it, school officials should strive to make the percentage of the school budget which is devoted to teachers' salaries as large as possible.

2. When a salary schedule is instituted, it should be known whether there will be ample funds within the next one, five, ten, or fifteen years to finance it. The cloth must always be cut to suit the garment. Breaking faith with teachers regarding salary promises cannot be countenanced.

3. The beginning salary should be sufficiently high to cause the better high school students to desire to spend the necessary time and money in preparing for teaching.

4. The standards of pay should be approximately as high as those of other vocations which require equal qualifications. This applies both to the beginning salary and to the salary of succeeding years. Moreover, if funds permit, the pay should approximate in amount that of other school systems, provided of course that equal qualifications are demanded.

5. Since maximum efficiency is not reached early in experience — at least with thoroughly live and ambitious teachers — salary increases should be made as long as there is evidence of increased efficiency. This means that some teachers will receive increases for thirty, forty, or fifty years. Lack of revenue is the only justification of ceasing salary increases at the close of ten or fifteen years of experience, as many schedules do.

6. It should be made possible to employ experienced teachers from other school systems and to start them at the same salary which local teachers having equal experience and qualifications are receiving.

7. Equal pay should be given for equal qualifications and services. Granting that they have equal qualifications, elementary school teachers should have as much pay as high school teachers. In other words, the *single*-salary schedule, that is, equal pay for equal qualifications, should be placed in operation. This type of schedule will permit the assignment of the teacher to that type of service for which he is best qualified and which he desires to enter.

8. Granted that qualifications and services are equal, women teachers should receive the same pay as men. Justice demands this parity. A different schedule for the two sexes brings never-ending trouble with both the women teachers and the public. If to secure a greater number of men teachers it is deemed expedient to pay them higher salaries, let the extra pay be given them for special duties or services, such as administering a department, or for dependents.

9. General increases in teachers' salaries to *all* teachers can seldom, if ever, be justified. Such a policy assumes that all teachers are entitled to an increase, and of the same amount, which is seldom, if ever, true. The same reasoning would apply to salary decreases.

10. Provision should be made for adjusting the salary schedule to meet changes in the cost of living.

11. No salary schedule can be made to operate automatically. All that a schedule can do is to serve as a general plan. Teachers should be paid on the basis of merit and this requires that some means of ascertaining merit be instituted. In working out this plan of ascertaining merit the help of the teachers should be elicited as should their help be invited in designing the salary schedule.

CAMPAIGNS FOR SALARY INCREASES

When to have a campaign. — After the salary situation in a community has been studied and it has been found that salaries are too low, steps should be taken to increase them to the proper level. Often a well-organized campaign for this purpose will be necessary, and in a community which has financed its schools parsimoniously during several years such a campaign is especially necessary.

Under ideal conditions a public campaign for this purpose would *not* be necessary, for under such conditions school officials would keep themselves constantly informed concerning the salary levels and would be empowered by the public to deal justly with the most important servants of the public,

namely, the teachers. An organized public campaign is recommended therefore only when it is necessary — when the school board will not, or *cannot*, give justice because of lack of revenue.

Conduct of the campaign. — In any campaign for salary increases there should be complete co-operation between the school board members, the school administrative officers, and the teaching corps. If these groups work at cross-purposes, the public, which must judge the merit of the requests for salary increases and must pay the increases, if granted, may be in doubt. It is common observation that when the groups aforementioned work at cross-purposes, the campaign for salary increases nearly always fails. If at all possible, lay groups should be stimulated to lead the campaign for salary increases; such strategy is much more likely to be successful, because when teachers lead the campaign they are likely to be accused of being unduly selfish.

J. C. Almack and A. R. Lang recommend that the following steps be taken in a campaign for salary increases.[1] They well say, however, that in some campaigns certain of the steps may be omitted and that in other campaigns additional steps may be necessary:

1. Form an organization with the improvement of salary conditions as the objective. If you have an old organization that is working well, use it.

2. Find out all you can about salaries and lay out the campaign. Get committees at work, and see that they report promptly.

3. Get the facts on the cost of living in your own community. Be sure that they are complete and reliable. If necessary, call in an expert to help you.

4. Study the wages and salaries paid in the community. Let your investigation extend back several years, or as far as data are available. The Federal Department of Labor may be able to help you.

5. Obtain regular statements from the United States Department of Commerce on the prices of staple commodities and the purchasing power of the dollar.

[1] *Problems of the Teaching Profession*, pp. 250–252. Copyright by Houghton Mifflin Company.

6. Study the finances of your school system and of the state. Find out how it compares with other sections in ability to support schools, and in its performance.

7. Study the amounts expended in your city and state for luxuries. Note also whether there are sources of taxation that are untouched, or practically so.

8. Get an agreement among the members of your organization and among the teachers of the city upon the weight that should be attached to training, experience, and improvement. If you cannot agree on the basis of the facts you gather, toss a coin on disputed points.

9. Put your program for equalizing salaries before the superintendent and the school board. With their approval draw up a new schedule.

10. Keep the values of education before the public. Use the press, exhibits, invitations to visit the school, lectures, four-minute speeches, education week, and other publicity devices.

11. Put the salary facts you have gathered before the public. Be discreet. Be persistent. Do not try to do everything at once. One thing at a time is a good motto. The following order is a good one:

   a. Get all salaries raised to the subsistence level. Use the argument of plain justice.
   b. Get the schedule differentiated on the basis of training. To do this, or to accomplish any other improvement, no salaries should be reduced.
   c. Work to extend the number of payments made for experience. If under the existing schedule, only six annual increases are made, try to bring them up to twelve, and then on toward the total term of service. Stress the need of inducing teachers to stay in the schools, and the added efficiency which comes with experience and contentment.
   d. Get an appropriation in the form of a bonus to compensate teachers who spend the vacation on self-improvement. If a good showing can be made as to the number of teachers from the particular school system attending summer school the preceding year, it will be a strong argument.

12. Concentrate your effort on other important related matters, such as:
   a. Obtaining more revenue from the county, state, and nation.
   b. Equating the teaching load.
   c. Finding reliable means of measuring teaching efficiency.

Probably the most important part of the campaign, particularly if the public must vote an additional tax levy to make the salary increases effective, is the publicity feature of it.

The success of the campaign hinges upon the public having the necessary facts and upon these being presented in the proper way. One of the most important committees therefore in the campaign organization is that on publicity. In undertaking their work the members of this committee would do well to procure information concerning publicity methods and materials used in successful campaigns elsewhere. They will be aided also by writing for help and information to the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. Finally, they should consult some of the books on school publicity which have been published during recent years; these books are mentioned in the list of Selected References at the close of Chapter XXIX.

PAY-ROLL PROCEDURE [1]

The pay-roll problem. — The size of the pay-roll problem in a school system is comprehended when it is known that approximately two-thirds of the school revenue of the typical school system is used to pay the salaries or wages of the school employees and that the contracts of these employees provide that payments shall be made regularly at stipulated intervals. Even a small school organization — for example, one in a community of only a few hundred inhabitants — has a dozen or more principals, supervisors, teachers, janitors, clerks, and other employees to pay regularly, and system in the payment of these employees cannot be neglected. The larger the school organization the more urgent, of course, is the need for definite system in pay-roll procedure. The school systems of the large cities, such as New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia must pay monthly or semi-monthly several thousand employees; moreover, only one pay roll in such a school system amounts to several million dollars. So large is the work of administering pay rolls and so important is it that the work shall be done with accuracy,

[1] This section is largely a summary of pages 385 to 403 of the author's *The Business Administration of a School System*. Copyright by Ginn and Company.

dispatch, and economy that many of the larger school systems have established a separate pay-roll division to administer this work.

The small and medium-sized school systems have various procedures regarding the personnel for such work. Many medium-sized school systems give the function of administering pay rolls to one person, who is also responsible for administering the substitute-teacher service. The smaller school systems either hire extra clerical help for a day or two before each pay period or give this extra work to the superintendent of schools, office clerk, business manager, or some other regular employee in the general administrative office.

Properly to administer pay rolls requires the giving of attention to such matters as control over the employment of individuals, fixing the rates of compensation of employees, ascertaining the services rendered by them, and paying them. Unless attention is given to these matters, there is likely to be waste — waste resulting from such things as too-small pupil-teacher ratios, teachers being employed who have not been certificated, payment for services which have not been rendered, or employees not securing their pay at the proper time or in the proper way.

Authorization of positions. — The rules and regulations of the board of education should establish a definite procedure for the authorization of the employment of any individuals; unless this control is provided, too many employees or incompetent ones may be procured. The necessity for establishing machinery for such authorization is seen particularly in the case of instructional employees. All states have enacted laws which require that teachers shall be certificated; if such employees have not met the requirements established by the statutes, the payment of salaries to them constitutes an illegal expenditure. Before a teacher is employed it should be known that he has the proper certificate and has met all other legal requirements. When this information is secured, and not until then, the name of the employee may be included in

the pay-roll list at the rate of compensation that has been agreed upon. Moreover, every school system should always have information showing the adequacy of its present personnel.

The pay interval. — Most school systems pay the members of the instructional staff and similar employees monthly. Operation and maintenance employees, however, are usually paid on a semi-monthly basis. A few school systems pay all employees semi-monthly. In a few states the time of paying school employees — particularly the instructional ones — is specified by statute. Gary, Indiana, has divided the year into twenty-six pay periods, each period, with two exceptions, covering fourteen days; the two exceptions are pay period number one and pay period number twenty-six, either of which may have a lesser or a greater number of days. Gary's reason for making this division of the pay period is that the Indiana laws make the month for payment of teachers' salaries twenty-eight days, whereas other employees are on the regular calendar-month basis. By the arrangement just mentioned, it is possible to include all classes of employees on any particular pay roll.

Most school systems pay their teachers and other instructional employees during only the months of employment. There is a tendency, however, to place the teacher's salary on an annual basis and to pay it monthly throughout the year. By this plan, although the annual salary may be the same, the teacher can look forward to a salary check during each of the vacation months as well as during the months of the school term. Investigation shows that most teachers prefer this plan, and the weight of argument generally is in its favor.

Pay-roll regulations. — Every school system, particularly if it has a large number of employees, should adopt a set of rules and regulations governing pay-roll procedure. These rules and regulations should be mimeographed or printed and a copy placed in the hands of each administrative officer

who has been delegated a pay-roll function. These rules and regulations and forms should be complete regarding the pay-roll procedure for each of the various types of school employees. For each group the following matters should be covered: how the service records are to be kept; time of sending in the service records; how errors are corrected; approval of pay rolls; time of payment; pay for holidays; deductions for absence or for other reasons; delivery of warrants; transportation and carfare of employees; transfer of employees; and releases from contracts.

N. L. Engelhardt and Fred Engelhardt have well summarized the principles which should govern pay-roll procedure. They say: [1]

A. Definite written instructions should be prepared to instruct those responsible for supplying the source data. . . .
   1: Time reports should be submitted by all principals and department heads.
   2. All absences should be reported.
   3. Time reports should be in duplicate and one copy filed in the office where source data are compiled.
   4. Time reports should contain the following information in addition to positions held:
      a. Date, extent, and reason for absence.
      b. Name of substitute, and time taught.
   5. A complete calendar should be prepared for the school year giving date of salary payments and dates when reports should be filed.

B. In so far as possible, all work relative to pay-roll preparation should be done at the central office.
   1. The forms used in pay-roll accounting should be adapted to the bookkeeping procedure followed in the school system.
   2. All unnecessary duplication of names, entries, and records should be avoided.
   3. Pay-roll recapitulation should be carefully planned and prepared to facilitate posting and allocating items to their proper accounts.
   4. Columnar provisions on pay roll should be made for: numbering of payees; amount of annual contract, regular monthly and per diem payments; pension deductions; monthly data on days absent,

[1] *Public School Business Administration*, pp. 630–632. Copyright by Teachers College, Columbia University.

net amount of payment, and warrant number; and signature of approving officer of each period of payment.

5. Provision should be made for distribution of each item under proper codes chargeable.
6. The totals should be checked with apportionment in budget.
7. An account must be kept with each employee.
8. Records should be prepared to avoid any possibility of duplicate payments or the payments to employees after services have been discontinued.

C. Payments.

1. No payments should be made in cash.
2. Payments should be made promptly.
3. Cash must be adequately controlled in order to insure the availability of cash when needed.
4. All warrants for payment should be distributed through the school offices, and by the treasurer.
5. The pay warrant should conform to all legal and banking regulations.
6. The payments should be made according to a predetermined time schedule, and all employees should be notified of this schedule by calendar or otherwise and of the method or place of payment.
7. The warrants should be in such form as to serve as a receipt when cashed, showing date, number, and name of payee, code number chargeable, and amount of payment.
8. A record should be kept of all warrants issued, and when a warrant is returned canceled, it should be checked against this record and then filed.

PENSIONS OR OLD-AGE ANNUITIES

During recent years one of the important public questions has revolved around the advisability of providing economic security for all workers through a system of pensions, annuities, or retirement allowances. The public has apparently accepted the theory of such benefits for all groups of workers, and much federal and state legislation has already been enacted to that end.

Arguments for teachers' pensions. — State-wide pensions or old-age annuities for teachers in the United States are a fairly recent development, dating back to 1896 when New Jersey enacted such a law. The first pension systems for

teachers were local, and teachers were seldom required to join them. These first systems were financed entirely by the teachers and most of them were actuarially unsound; many soon became bankrupt. During recent years, however, the tendency has been toward the establishment of state-wide pension systems; more than one-half of the states now have state-wide pension systems, and in many of the remaining states several of the larger school systems, especially in the large cities, have organized their own systems. Approximately two-thirds of the teachers of the United States are now protected by some kind of state or local pension system. Although pension systems have been established primarily to assure a better type of teaching service, they keep in mind also the welfare of the teacher. The arguments in favor of a pension system for teachers — an excellent system, of course, is meant — may be summarized as follows:

1. A pension system protects the pupils from senile teachers. When a pension system is not in operation, boards of education hesitate to retire such teachers because they are aware that the retired teachers would perhaps not have means of support and might become paupers.
2. A pension system helps to attract desirable young people into the teaching profession and to keep them there.
3. A pension system reduces or removes the teacher's anxiety and worry over a destitute old age and thus enables the teacher to give a better type of service.
4. A pension should not be regarded as "charity," but as "deferred pay." A pension system forces the teacher to start saving early in life and thus to provide for his old age; statistics on the amount of pauperism and near-pauperism in old age show that most persons need such a stimulus to saving. Moreover, since the teacher's as well as the public's contributions are usually required to be invested in high-grade local, state, or federal bonds, there should be small doubt of the security of the investment.

Standards for a teachers' pension system. — Every state has not adopted a teachers' pension system; nor do all the states which have adopted systems have systems which are actuarially and socially sound. In one of its recent reports

the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching lists the principles upon which it deems that a teachers' pension system for a state should be based. Since these principles have had wide acceptance, they are being epitomized herewith in order that the pension system, present or proposed, of any state may be measured by them:

1. Membership in the system should be optional for those persons who were teaching prior to the going into operation of the pension law. Membership should be compulsory, however, for all teachers accepting appointment after the enactment of the law.

2. The rules of the system should provide for the retirement of any teacher when old-age or disability makes satisfactory service no longer possible. The retirement allowance should be sufficient to enable the teacher to live in comfort.

3. The contributions of the teacher and of the public should be approximately equal, and in no case should the teacher or the public provide the contributions without the help of the other. The amounts to be paid by the teacher and by the public should be stated in the law creating the pension system.

4. The teacher's and the state's contributions should be made regularly and concurrently during the period of service of the teacher.

5. An individual account for each teacher should be kept.

6. The system should be on a sound reserve basis and periodic actuarial investigations of the system should be made.

7. A retirement allowance should be made for disability after a reasonable period of service.

8. The teacher's cumulative deposits should be returnable upon withdrawal from teaching, from the state, or upon death prior to retirement. Interest at an established rate, as well as the principal, should also be returnable.

9. The teacher should be permitted to select the manner in which he will receive his retirement allowance.

10. Credit should be allowed for all service prior to the enactment of the retirement legislation. Moreover, credit for such service should be allowed for service in the local state or in other states.

11. The retirement board should be representative and its personnel should be prescribed so as to assure a high type of representation both for the public and for the teacher.

Retirement age. — Most pension systems provide for optional superannuation after either a certain number of years

of service, *usually* thirty-five, or a certain age, *usually* sixty. Most of them also provide for compulsory superannuation at the age of sixty-five, sixty-eight, or seventy. Provision is also made in most systems for the pensioning of members who become permanently disabled after a certain number of years of service.

Although injustices are occasionally inflicted by rigid enforcement of the rule, the tendency in theory and practice is toward school systems setting an arbitrary age limit for compulsory retirement and not to make exceptions to it. Such a regulation helps to protect the pupils from the danger of senile teachers and it helps to reduce unemployment among the young teachers. The tendency is toward setting the optional retirement age at sixty and the compulsory retirement age at sixty-five. There is also a tendency to require medical examination of all employees who wish to remain in service after the optional retirement age has been reached. All these tendencies are in the right direction and should be continued.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Does your state have a minimum salary law for teachers? If so, what are its provisions? Why did state minimum salary laws for teachers come into being? What type of such law would you recommend, if any?

2. To what extent, if any, should school employees assist in making the salary schedule for the school system? Explain. What part, if any, should the board of education play in making the salary schedule?

3. What is likely to be the effect on the teaching personnel if the maximum salary is reached within the first few years of the teacher's experience? Why?

4. Under what stipulations would you favor paying teachers an extra salary for summer school attendance?

5. Secure a teacher's salary schedule from any school system and criticize its strong and weak features.

6. Is there any justification for paying administrators and supervisors larger salaries than classroom teachers? Explain.

7. To what extent, if any, should school officials and employees engage

in competitive bargaining? Explain. Should they seek another position for the purpose of forcing an increase in salary in their present position? Why or why not?

8. What can be done to decrease jealousy of employees who secure salary increases when others do not?

9. Should school employees engage in another business on the side? Under what conditions, if any?

10. Why is it usually easier to secure money for new school buildings than for increased pay for teachers?

11. Should the superintendent of schools accept an increase in salary when he has been unable to secure salary increases for any of his teachers?

12. Other things being equal, is it preferable to promote a local employee to a vacancy or to bring in an outsider? Explain.

13. How account for the fact that in some school systems some of the most inefficient teachers are the best paid?

14. Do you think that the public should undertake to pay all or part of the expenses of teachers who attend educational conventions? Explain.

15. What reasons other than a low salary explain the fact that teachers seldom accumulate much wealth? What, if anything, can be done to improve this situation?

16. Should the salary of teachers be distributed over the twelve months of the calendar year or over the months only of the school year? Why or why not?

17. Outline a pay-roll procedure for the employees of a school system of any given population.

18. Do you favor pension systems for teachers? Why or why not?

19. Should every board of education set a retirement age for all school employees? Explain. What retirement age, if any, would you favor? Explain.

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Chapter IX

EVALUATING TEACHING EFFICIENCY

NEED FOR EVALUATION [1]

That teachers differ widely in ability and accomplishment has always been known. Teachers have always been compared and contrasted; they have always been evaluated. If they had not been evaluated, Jesus, Socrates, Aristotle, Thomas Arnold, and Mark Hopkins would not be listed among the greatest teachers of all time. At the close of the first day of school, pupils are wont to compare their opinions of the merit of their teachers, and, either upon their own initiative or in answer to questions, they rehearse those opinions to the members of the family and to other persons when they reach home. "How do you like your teacher?" is the educational question most frequently asked and answered in homes which have children in school. What the pupil thinks of the teacher usually determines what the parent thinks, and what the parent thinks usually determines how the general public and school officials appraise the teacher. Every teacher has at some time been classified by all the aforementioned groups of persons as good or excellent, average or mediocre, poor or inefficient; such ratings cannot be escaped by the teacher, and probably they are made every day of the teacher's experience. It is, of course, true that such ratings have been usually based upon general impressions, and have often been biased and grossly inaccurate; nevertheless, such judgments

[1] Evaluation implies not only measurement but appraisal in terms of a general philosophy and principles. Because of its wider implications, it is rapidly taking the place of the term "measurement."

—untrustworthy though they may be — constitute evaluations, and teachers have been and are being selected, paid, promoted, demoted, transferred, retired, and dismissed on the basis of them.

There is need for a more accurate evaluation of teachers than general impressions can supply. It is not enough to say that Mr. Jones is an excellent or a poor teacher; school officials should strive to be able to say how excellent or how poor a teacher he is. They should strive to be able to state the ability and the accomplishments of the teacher in quantitative and objective terms just as they are able to express in such terms the dimensions of a surface or the weight of an object; they should recognize, however, that genius knows no law and that formulae, standards, and measuring procedures must often be changed to accommodate genius. Jesus, Socrates, and other artist teachers became great largely because they were *different*. An accurate evaluation of teachers is urged for the following reasons:

1. Selection. — An accurate evaluating procedure would enable teacher-preparing institutions to select their students with keener discrimination and with greater probability that the candidates selected would develop into successful teachers. From a more careful selection of such candidates there would result more happy teachers and more efficient schools; there would be less vocational misfits — less "square pegs in round holes." Too many people are being permitted to enter teaching who do not have the intelligence and the other qualities which will enable them to become successful teachers. The supply of such teachers should be stopped at the source, namely, at the entrance doors of the teacher-preparing institutions; when the entrance doors cannot be effectively closed to them, the exit doors should not be left ajar.

Accurate evaluation would enable school officials more surely to select efficient teachers for the schools. Under present conditions of selection it is difficult to distinguish

the "blue-ribbon" teachers from the "culls," and it is unfortunate that many teacher-preparing institutions believe that there is as much advantage to them to "sell" culls as blue-ribbon product.

2. Salary and promotion. — At present the teachers' salary schedules of most school systems base the beginning salary and the annual increment on the number of credit hours of college preparation and the number of years of teaching experience. The assumption underlying such schedules is that extra preparation and additional experience make the teacher more competent, and thus entitled to a larger salary. Although this assumption is usually well founded, there are many exceptions to the rule. Some teachers who have little or no teaching experience secure larger and better results than others who have had a long period of service; artist teachers should not be required to wait until they are old before being rewarded. Moreover, some teachers who have had little college preparation are more efficient than others who have earned bachelors', masters', or doctors' degrees.

Merit is the characteristic which should be rewarded, and an urgent need in school administration today is a method of evaluation that would exactly ascertain the merit of each teacher. Such merit having been discovered, it would remain only to give the teacher his salary or his promotion on the basis of his efficiency rating. What a mighty stimulus such a plan would be to good teaching and to the teaching profession, for then every teacher would know that he would be rewarded according to the results secured. "Pull," "politics," and other extraneous factors would not determine salaries as they frequently do today; moreover, the deadening effect of paying all who have had equal experience and equal college preparation the same salary, which is a common practice, would be obliterated. Better qualified persons would enter the profession and remain in it, and teaching would then more likely become in its pecuniary rewards, as well as in

its oft-mentioned "opportunities for service," the great adventure. These goals are not impossible to achieve, and the profession should take more vigorous steps toward them.

At present, most school systems which have plans for teacher evaluation do not seem to have enough confidence in the accuracy of the evaluations to use them as a basis for determining the amount of the teacher's salary. Recent studies have shown that almost half the school systems of the cities of the United States are attempting to rate teachers on the quality of services rendered, but that only a few of the systems use these ratings as a basis for determining teachers' salaries. Practically all school systems which have a probationary period for new teachers require a systematic rating at the end of the period or during each year of the period. A few school systems rate their teachers every three or five years in order to determine eligibility for promotion from one rank to another; moreover, a few others have established super-level salaries and have established rating plans to ascertain the teachers who merit these prize salaries. The attempts at systematic rating have been made almost entirely in the city schools; they have been made much less frequently in the rural districts.

3. Supervision and preparation. — There is need for a system of evaluation which teachers could use in pursuing their professional preparation before they enter service. Under present conditions the teacher in preparation does not know with any degree of definiteness the progress he is making because he does not know the prerequisites for an efficient teacher; he, as well as his college instructors who are directing his preparation, is groping largely in the dark. A system of evaluation is needed which would tell him and his instructors at any time how effectively he is meeting those requisites.

An evaluation system would also enable him to see his strong and weak points and thus would help him to improve his preparation after he began teaching; this is everywhere

agreed to be the most important reason for such a system. Moreover, evaluation should be of assistance to his administrative superiors and supervisors in helping him to improve his efficiency; in other words, it would be an excellent supervisory procedure and service for correcting weaknesses and improving strengths.

4. Retirement and dismissal. — Finally, an evaluation system is needed to assist school officials in determining on an objective basis when teachers should be retired on a pension, or dismissed, because of incompetency. It is needed in order that justice may be done to the teacher, to the schools, and to the public. Without definite information on each teacher's competency, many teachers are retained who should be retired or dismissed and many are retired or dismissed who should be retained.

METHODS OF EVALUATION

General-impression method. — In the first paragraph of this chapter it was stated that since time immemorial teachers have been evaluated by the general-impression method. They have been "hired and fired" on that basis; likewise, they have been paid, promoted, and demoted. During recent years, however, the need has been increasingly seen for a more accurate and objective method of evaluation. Consequently, many attempts have been made to supplant the general-impression method of evaluation with more quantitative and objective methods. All these attempts have the general purpose of collecting and organizing information on the ability and accomplishments of the teacher and all, therefore, have some value. The high points in these attempts are briefly described in the following paragraphs.

Stenographic reports of lessons. — In a few schools, provision is made for a stenographer to go to the teacher's classroom to take stenographic notes of everything said and done by pupils and teachers during a class period. After the notes have been transcribed, they are perused by the teacher and

the supervisor and are used as the basis of a conference on the teacher's class technique. Probably this is more of a supervisory technique than a method of measurement, yet it may be used as an excellent supplement of the general-impression method. Obviously the practice is expensive, which operates against its being used more widely.

Voice-recording techniques. — During recent years portable voice-recording instruments have been developed and a few school systems have purchased them for helping with instruction in such subjects as music and speech and for use in classroom supervision and teacher evaluation. These recordings make it possible to "play back," as often as desired, everything that was said by the person or persons in the recordings. By means of them the quality of the voice may be studied and the words uttered by the voice may be analyzed. Detailed information on these instruments may be secured from any of the large companies which manufacture electrical equipment, hence they need not be further described here.

A few schools are now so equipped with communication systems between the principal's office and each classroom that the principal may listen from his office to the oral activities of any classroom. With such a communication system it is also possible for him to make recordings in his office, provided a voice-recording instrument is available. Of course, to avoid the charge of being spies, school officials should notify teachers before their work is listened to or recorded.

Score cards and scales. — Most efforts toward securing a more objective plan of evaluating teaching efficiency have been devoted to the derivation of teachers' score cards or scales. A sample of a typical score card or scale, especially of the briefer type, is reproduced in Fig. 18. Several hundred of these rating devices are known to be in use, and the general plan of them is similar to that of the sample displayed herewith.

The fact that so many of these score cards and scales are in use demonstrates that the profession has not yet developed

TEACHER..... NO. OF YEARS OF EXPERIENCE..... BUILDING..... GRADE OR DEPT.....

QUALITY GROUPS		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Scale words indicating progress of quality	Points assigned to scale positions	Vitality (health, physical development, strength, reserve force)	Personality, character, inspiration, leadership, tact, judgment, etc.	Initiative, resourcefulness, executive capacity, overcoming counteracting factors	Professional spirit, industry, and professional growth	Coöperation with associates and supervisory staff, loyalty, and community interest	Attitude toward children (interest, sympathy, and justice)	Preparation (cultural, intellectual, academic, and professional)	Skill in class control and management	Skill in teaching (technique)	Skill in teaching (results)
Superior	40										
Good	30										
Fair	20										
Inferior	10										

DIRECTIONS: Place a dot in each vertical column opposite the proper degree of capability as indicated by the scale words in the left-hand column. Connect the dots by lines. If it is desired to weight qualities, double the number of points in groups 7 and 8 and quadruple the number in groups 9 and 10. Then numerical values of general ratings are: Superior, 660–720; good, 480–659; fair, 360–479; inferior, 180–359. For further directions and explanations, see reverse side of M. S. T. A. rating card.

Total Numerical Rating. (1)..... (2)..... (3).....

General Rating (1)..... (2)..... (3).....

Date (1)..... (2)..... (3).....

Principal or Supervisor

FIG. 18. — A Sample Teacher-Rating Card. (Designed by the Michigan State Teachers' Association.)

a *best* card or scale. If there were such a plan, it would soon become known to all school systems and be universally adopted. An examination of these score cards and scales makes clear that they have the following limitations:

In the first place, they are subjective rather than objective. Let two or more persons use the same card or scale for an independent rating of the same teacher, and it will usually be found that they disagree on the total rating which the teacher should be given; moreover, there will be even wider disagreement on the rating of many of the separate items which go into the making of the total score; for example, one person will rate the teacher excellent on skill in questioning, another will mark him average on that quality, and still another will rate him poor. Although the score card or scale has the advantage of calling the attention of the rater to the characteristics of excellent teachers, it does not provide an objective scale of values for measuring those characteristics.

In the second place, there is much overlapping among the items on which the teacher is rated. One score card will give special emphasis to a certain characteristic, and another will give it little emphasis or perhaps will not even mention it. A study of the rating forms shows conclusively that there is no agreement on what constitutes an excellent, an average, or a poor teacher; yet it would seem that the question of what constitutes an excellent, an average, or a poor teacher should be one of the first questions to answer in attempting to measure teaching ability. Unquestionably the most extensive study of the traits of excellent teachers was made by *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*. The twenty-five most important traits indicated by that study are ranked for the different types of teachers in Table II.

In the third place, the typical score card or scale must be criticized because its point of departure is fallacious. It is fallacious because it attempts to measure teaching efficiency by taking note of such characteristics as daily preparation, quality of voice, kind of discipline, skill in questioning, and

TABLE II. — RANK-LIST OF TEACHERS' TRAITS[1]

	Rank for Teachers of:				
	Grades X–XII Senior High School	*Grades VII–IX Junior High School*	*Grades III–VI Inter-mediate*	*Grades Kdg.–II Kdg. Primary*	*Rural School*
1. Adaptability	8	10	8	6	1
2. Attractiveness, personal appearance	17	14	9	10	15
3. Breadth of interest (interest in community, interest in profession, interest in pupils)	1	10	11	15	2
4. Carefulness (accuracy, definiteness, thoroughness)	11	13	9	14	12
5. Considerateness (appreciativeness, courtesy, kindliness, sympathy, tact, unselfishness)	17	3	1	1	3
6. Co-operation (helpfulness, loyalty)	11	9	14	16	3
7. Dependability (consistency)	14	19	16	17	15
8. Enthusiasm (alertness, animation, inspiration, spontaneity)	9	4	5	2	11
9. Fluency	23	24	25	23	25
10. Forcefulness (courage, decisiveness, firmness, independence, purposefulness)	5	4	18	19	13
11. Good judgment (discretion, foresight, insight, intelligence)	2	1	3	4	3
12. Health	16	16	12	10	9
13. Honesty	7	12	7	9	6
14. Industry (patience, perseverance)	19	8	14	13	17
15. Leadership (initiative, self-confidence)	4	17	19	21	8
16. Magnetism (approachability, cheerfulness, optimism, pleasantness, sense of humor, socia-					

[1] W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*, p. 18. Copyright by the University of Chicago Press.

TABLE II. — RANK-LIST OF TEACHERS' TRAITS (*Continued*)

	Rank for Teachers of:				
	Grades X–XII Senior High School	*Grades VII–IX Junior High School*	*Grades III–VI Inter-mediate*	*Grades Kdg.–II Kdg. Primary*	*Rural School*
bility, pleasing voice, wittiness)	11	4	5	3	9
17. Neatness (cleanliness)	20	16	13	4	18
18. Open-mindedness	9	20	23	24	22
19. Originality (imaginativeness, resourcefulness)	22	22	16	12	19
20. Progressiveness (ambition)	23	23	22	20	22
21. Promptness (dispatch, punctuality)	21	14	20	18	21
22. Refinement (conventionality, good taste, modesty, morality, simplicity)	14	20	2	8	13
23. Scholarship (intellectual curiosity)	5	16	21	21	20
24. Self-control (calmness, dignity, poise, reserve, sobriety)	2	2	3	6	6
25. Thrift	25	25	24	25	24

pupil attentiveness, instead of taking stock of the effect which these characteristics have on the learning of the pupils. School officials should not be much concerned with the characteristics of the teacher if he secures desirable results; these characteristics should be regarded as means, not as ends. Desirable skills, appropriate information, proper habits, and worthwhile attitudes which teachers have developed in the pupils are the things which school officials should be primarily interested in measuring, rather than characteristics of teachers. The deed rather than the doer, teaching rather than the teacher, should be the center of attention.

Although there is widespread opinion to the effect that score cards and scales are more reliable for rating teachers than the old-fashioned general-impression method, a diligent search does not reveal any objective evidence to indicate that they

are more reliable. Probably their greatest value is that they call the attention of the teachers who are rated to certain characteristics which by common consent should be found in excellent teachers. Most teachers, administrators, and supervisors are agreed that the chief value of a score card or scale exists in the fact that it provides a method by which the teacher may rate himself; it serves as a stimulus to, and a guide for, introspection. It is eminently worth while for the teacher to be cognizant of the characteristics of good teachers, and occasionally to take inventory of his own virtues and shortcomings, in terms of those desirable characteristics. The practice of Benjamin Franklin, which is related in his autobiography, of checking his virtues and shortcomings at the close of each day is probably worth following occasionally by all of us. If the teacher is aware that one characteristic of a good teacher is to know how to make pupil assignments, he will probably be interested in ascertaining the best methods of making assignments and will attempt to bring his own practice up to those standards.

When a score card or scale is devised for the rating of the teachers of a particular school system, it should be made co-operatively. It should not be devised by one person, even though he may be an educational Solomon. Although the accomplishments of one brilliant mind may be worth more than those of several mediocre minds, and "the intelligence of one person may be more valuable than the ignorance of many persons," nevertheless the mediocre mind may be of assistance to the brilliant mind, particularly in pointing out deficiencies. When it has been decided that a score card or scale would be helpful to a school system, the superintendent should appoint a committee to design such an instrument. On this committee there should be representatives of the persons to be rated as well as those who rate — that is, there should be classroom teachers as well as principals, supervisors, and superintendents. Teachers are likely to think more highly of an evaluating instrument which they have helped

to devise; they are not likely to regard highly such an instrument devised by one person, particularly when it has been devised by the use of the "armchair" method.

When the evaluating instrument is ready for use, it would be well to have it applied by as many administrators and supervisors as possible; moreover, it would be desirable to have the ratings made at as many different times as possible. It has already been observed that these score cards and scales are not objective, because in the application of them two or more supposedly competent supervisors are likely to disagree in their opinions of what a given teacher is worth. It would be well, therefore, particularly if the teacher's salary is to be based upon the rating and if other decisions of moment are to be based upon it, to secure the rating of several judges. For example, it would be well to secure for each teacher the rating of the superintendent of schools, that of the assistant superintendent, those of the general and the special supervisors, and that of the principal. These several judgments could then be summated and the composite rating of the teacher be determined by the superintendent or his representative.

The comparison method. — The essence of this plan is that the teacher is evaluated in comparison with other teachers whom the person doing the evaluating has known. According to the plan, the person who does the evaluating makes his own scale. He selects for the highest step of the scale the best teacher he has ever known, and for the lowest step he selects the poorest teacher he has ever known. In addition, he selects teachers to represent the intermediary steps — that is, the average, better than average, and poorer than average. When the supervisor or administrator comes to evaluate a given phase of teacher efficiency he compares the teacher under consideration with the three, five, or other number of persons he has selected to represent the varying qualities of teachers. Walter S. Monroe and John A. Clark have written as follows regarding the making and the using of such a scale: [1]

[1] *Measuring Teaching Efficiency*, pp. 9–10.

1. The first step is to decide upon the rubrics of qualities or traits which are to be measured. It is probably wise to recognize from three to five rubrics of qualities rather than to make one general scale including all qualities. Rugg has suggested the following divisions: (1) skill in teaching, (2) skill in mechanics of managing a class, (3) team-work qualities, (4) quality of growth and keeping up-to-date, (5) personal and social qualities.

2. For each rubric of qualities a separate scale is to be made. The first step in its construction is to write down the names of at least twenty-five teachers whom you know well with respect to the first group of traits being considered. This list should include teachers representing various degrees of excellence. It is highly important that the poorest teacher and also the best teacher whom you have ever known be included. This procedure is to be repeated for each rubric. It is likely that the names of certain teachers will appear in two or more lists.

3. Arrange the teachers in each list in order of merit, placing the best at the top and the poorest at the bottom. In doing this consider only the traits included in the rubric under consideration. For example, in arranging the teachers in "skill in managing a class" no consideration should be given their "qualities of growth and keeping up-to-date." This ranking of teachers is the most important as well as the most difficult step in the formation of the scale, and should be made as accurate as possible.

4. From each list select five teachers who will be satisfactory representatives of the following degrees of excellence: (1) the best teacher ever known, (2) better than average teacher, (3) average teacher, (4) poorer than average, and (5) the poorest teacher ever known. It is recommended that these five teachers be selected in the following order: "best," "poorest," "average," "better than average," "poorer than average"

The final scale consists of the list of five teachers for each rubric of qualities selected for measurement. When a supervisor has once made a scale it may be preserved and used year after year until there is good reason for revision.

In a large city school system where there are several supervisors engaged in rating teachers it will be helpful to have them work together in preparing their man-to-man comparison scales. By such comparison greater uniformity in the measurements will be secured even though the completed scales probably will not be composed of the same teachers.

In rating teachers with a man-to-man comparison scale, only one rubric of qualities is considered at a time. Numerical values are assigned to each of the scale teachers. The following have been proposed: 38, 30, 22, 14, 6. If a particular teacher, when rated with respect to "skill

in teaching," is judged to be equivalent to the best teacher the supervisor has ever known he would receive a numerical rating of 38. On the other hand, if he is judged to be equivalent to the "poorer than average" he would receive a rating of 14. In rating a teacher with reference to one rubric of qualities no consideration should be given to his other qualities or to the other qualities of the scale teacher. The total rating of a teacher is obtained by adding together the numerical ratings on each of the rubrics of qualities.

This comparison, or man-to-man, method gained wide vogue during the World War in evaluating prospective as well as commissioned officers. Shortly before that time the method had been developed and used to a slight extent in rating industrial employees. During and following the war the technique was applied to the rating of teachers and is used by many supervisors and administrators today.

From the description just given the reader has probably inferred that the method has the chief defect of the method of evaluating by use of the score card or scale — that is, it is *subjective* and therefore does not yield an accurate measure of teaching ability. His inference is well founded. Let two persons independently evaluate the same teacher and they will probably differ in their judgments. Which person, if either, is right in such instance "only the angels know."

Pupil-results method. — In criticizing the aforementioned methods of evaluation it was affirmed that they are based on false assumptions in that they undertake to evaluate teacher activity rather than pupil activity. If the problem of teacher evaluation is ever solved it will be solved by an attack upon results rather than upon teachers' characteristics. It should matter little what kind of person a teacher is so long as he secures *results* — results in the broadest sense being, of course, meant. By their fruits teachers should, and will, be known.

Recent attacks, therefore, upon the teacher-evaluation problem have attempted to evaluate teacher efficiency by ascertaining the effect of the teacher's instruction upon the pupils. In these attempts the many standardized tests developed during recent years have been employed. Thus,

arithmetic tests have been used to ascertain how much arithmetic the pupil has learned; likewise, reading and other subjects. W. A. McCall has recommended the following technique for the measurement of teaching efficiency according to the pupil-results method: [1]

1. Determine the initial reading score of the pupils in the teacher's class.
2. Convert initial reading score into reading age.
3. Determine each pupil's mental age at the same time the initial reading test is given.
4. Divide mental age by chronological age to get I.Q. (Intelligence Quotient).
5. Divide reading age by mental age to get A.Q. (Achievement Quotient) in reading.
6. Estimate final mental age for the end of the teaching period.
7. Determine final reading score at the end of the teaching period.
8. Convert final reading score into final reading age.
9. Divide final reading age by estimated final mental age to get final A.Q.
10. Subtract mean initial A.Q. in reading from mean final A.Q. in reading. If the mean difference is zero, the teacher has been typically efficient. If the difference is below zero, the teacher is below average in efficiency. To the extent that the mean average is above zero, just to that extent the teacher has shown superior efficiency in teaching reading.
11. Repeat steps 1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, and 10 for arithmetic, and the mean A.Q. difference will be an index of the teacher's efficiency in teaching arithmetic. In similar fashion his efficiency at teaching other measurable abilities could be determined.
12. Compute the mean of these various mean A.Q. differences to get a final determination of the teacher's efficiency.

According to the plan outlined by McCall, the following formula may be used to express a teacher's efficiency (N being the number of subjects measured or tests given):

$$\text{Teacher efficiency} = \frac{(\text{Reading A.Q. Diff.}) + (\text{Arithmetic A.Q. Diff.}) +, \text{ etc.}}{N}$$

[1] *How to Measure in Education*, pp. 150–154. Copyright by The Macmillan Company.

There are, however, several ever-lurking dangers to be avoided in the use of the pupil-results method. In the first place, the inculcation of skills in reading, arithmetic, writing, and other subjects, although such inculcation is one of the most important objectives of the school, it is not the only objective. Perhaps it is not even the chief objective. In addition to the development of skills and the giving of information, the teacher has the obligation of developing wholesome habits and worth-while attitudes. He has the obligation of teaching the child how to get along with his fellows, sources of knowledge, proper habits of work, and many personal characteristics such as honesty, ambition, and respect for truth. The development of an integrated personality in each pupil is the supreme purpose of the school. Although it is true that anything which exists exists in some amount and therefore can be measured, nevertheless there are not yet instruments available for measuring many of these worth-while habits and attitudes. If it should be announced to teachers that their efficiency was to be evaluated in terms of the skills and the information in subject matter which they secure with pupils, there would be danger that the habits and the attitudes aforementioned would be neglected.

In the second place, there are many subjects, particularly the high school subjects, for which there are as yet no standardized achievement tests. How to measure pupil accomplishment in such subjects becomes a real problem. Moreover, the use of standardized tests is questioned by many teachers because they do not take into account the special philosophy of education and the special objectives which the individual teacher may have. Teachers' marks cannot be used, because the variability of teachers' marks upon ordinary teacher-made examinations has long been known and precludes the use of such marks as the final measure of pupil accomplishment.

In the third place, when pupil results are made the basis of teacher evaluation it is necessary to consider the pupil material with which the teacher has to work. It cannot be

reasonably insisted that the teacher who has a group of mentally subnormal children shall develop as much ability in a given subject in such children as a teacher having a group of normal or supernormal children. School officials who use the pupil-measurement method of measuring teaching efficiency have recognized the necessity of applying both an intelligence test and a subject-matter test to the pupils at the beginning of the teacher's work with the pupils. The intelligence test is needed in order that the intelligence of the pupil, that is, his ability to learn, shall be known before the teacher tries his material and his methods on him. The subject-matter or achievement test should be applied to the pupil in order that it may be known how much the pupil knows about that subject before the teacher "tries his stuff." After instruction has been given, subject-matter or achievement tests may again be applied to the pupil to ascertain the amount of progress which he has made under the teacher.

Pupil-judgment method. — Many investigations have secured the opinions of pupils on such matters as the characteristics of excellent teachers and of poor teachers, the teachers whom they liked best and why, and the teachers whom they liked least and why. Opinions and data disagree on the accuracy of pupil evaluation of teachers and on the advisability of securing such opinions. It is agreed, though, that such judgments have little or no value when coming from pupils in the elementary school, and that they should not be used as the sole measure of a teacher's efficiency even in high school and college. Many investigations have shown that the following traits rank highest among those which high school pupils like best in their teachers: instructional ability, good-naturedness, interest in pupils, sincerity, impartiality, firmness, and broad-mindedness.

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPLES OF TEACHER MEASUREMENT

Herewith are summarized the main principles to be kept in mind in evaluating teaching efficiency. The first six principles

are quoted from the Report of the Committee of One Hundred on Classroom Teachers' Problems; [1] the remaining principles are suggested by the writer:

1. A rating plan must have as its main purpose the guiding of teachers into better service. The chief purpose of any system of teacher-rating is the improvement of teaching; for this reason a rating plan should be inspirational and instructive.

2. Teacher-rating systems should afford each person rated a definite and concrete basis for the improvement of his efficiency as a teacher. . . .

3. The methods used in arriving at a rating of teaching efficiency should be as objective and scientific as educational progress permits and should be understood by all those rated. A teacher should be fully informed in advance, upon beginning service in any school system, what requirements will enter into the estimation of his work, and also how that estimation of his work will be recorded.

4. The results of ratings when completed should be automatically transmitted to the teacher rated in written form for his information and guidance. . . .

5. There should be one official who is the final rating authority. Supervisors of special subjects and special divisions may be advisory to this rating official.

6. A rating system should be arrived at as a result of mutual agreement by administrative, supervisory, and classroom staff.

7. Each teacher should be given a copy of the rating plan, together with any regulations pertaining to teacher-rating and should be encouraged to rate himself frequently.

8. The emphasis in rating should be on the deed rather than on the doer — on teaching and results rather than on the teacher.

9. The rating should be made in advance of any emergency which requires a decision affecting the teacher's status.

10. As many competent judges as possible should rate the teacher, and the average of all their ratings should be taken as the efficiency index for the teacher.

11. Each judge should rate the teacher at as many different times as possible.

12. And more important than all, since the teacher-rating movement does not yet rest on a scientific basis, no rating of a teacher should be considered as infallible. Every available item of information should be secured before the teacher is rated and no one plan of rating can be depended upon entirely.

[1] *National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings*, 1925, pp. 203–204.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How do you account for the fact that little genuine research has been done on teacher-rating and for the fact that scientific contributions in that field are almost unknown?

2. Account for the fact that teachers frequently object to attempts at measuring their efficiency. Are their objections valid? Explain.

3. Why do teachers frequently take offense when they are adversely criticized by supervisors and administrators? Through what means may criticisms be given without leaving a sting?

4. Assuming that you are superintendent of schools in a community of 5000 population, and that it has been decided to use a score card for the rating of the teachers. How would you proceed to design the score card? What, if any, assistance would you seek from the other educational employees in devising the score card?

5. What advantages, if any, would there be in having several persons rate the teacher and of summating all these ratings to secure the final rating? Should the rating be based on only one visit or on several? Why?

6. Should the teacher be told his rating? Are there any exceptions? Explain. Should other persons be told the teacher's rating? Why or why not?

7. When a score card is used for rating teachers, what advantages are there in giving each teacher a personal copy of the score card which will be used? When should this be given them?

8. What advantages to the teacher would accrue from self-rating? Is there a danger that self-rating will make the teacher too introspective and cause him to lose confidence in himself? How do you explain the fact that teachers tend to overrate themselves?

9. Would it be feasible to have pupils rate their teachers? Why or why not? Would the same arguments apply to both elementary and high school pupils with equal cogency? Explain.

10. Under what conditions, if any, would you, as superintendent, base the salary of the teacher wholly or partly on the teacher's efficiency rating?

11. Through what means might the superintendent secure a measure of the efficiency of his principals? Should the teachers be requested to rate them? Explain.

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PART III

Administration of the School Plant

Chapter X

PLANNING, CONSTRUCTING, AND FINANCING SCHOOL PLANTS

THE PROBLEM OF THE NEW SCHOOL PLANT

The term "school plant" includes the school site, the school building, and the school equipment. These are the permanent or relatively permanent possessions of the school system, and the expenditures made to acquire them are known in financial accounting as capital outlays. According to the United States Office of Education, the plants of the public elementary and secondary schools of the United States are now valued at more than eight billion dollars, and during normal times approximately 20 per cent of the annual school budget is spent for new plant.

Unless school buildings are properly planned, constructed, and financed, unless the equipment for them is well selected and economically purchased, and unless the sites are properly selected and purchased, there will be waste. Many school buildings are being erected at a cost of several hundred thousand or even several million dollars, and the opportunities for mistakes in their planning, construction, and financing — whether the buildings be large or small — are legion. Someone has well said that planning, constructing, and financing a school building requires the combined talent of an educator, an artist, an engineer, a hygiene expert, and an economist. Probably in no other school expenditure is there as much waste as in the planning and constructing of school buildings.[1]

[1] Much of this waste could be prevented by having a division of school

Although the developments in school housing have not been so rapid as the developments in many other phases of our life, it cannot be gainsaid that large improvement has been made in all phases of the school plant. As the purposes and procedures of the school have changed, the plant has had to be changed to meet these newer demands. From the beginning of schools, the tendency has been to make the school plant more useful, more healthful, more comfortable, more enduring, and more beautiful. This is as it should be, because an excellent plant makes an important contribution to the welfare of the pupil. It also makes a large contribution to the whole community because the school building is being increasingly used as a community center.

In spite of the great progress that has been made toward its solution, the school housing problem is still acute in hundreds of communities. Thousands of school buildings are not healthful, comfortable, beautiful, or adapted to modern educational programs. The Joint Commission on Emergency in Education of the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence recently estimated that 1,400,000 children were housed in school buildings which had been condemned as unsafe or unsanitary. The commission estimated that another million were housed in portable structures, abandoned stores, churches, lodge halls, or other temporary quarters, and about 600,000 were attending school on a part-time basis because of a shortage of building facilities. Moreover, thousands of buildings dated back to the Civil War period.

STEPS IN PLANNING, CONSTRUCTING, AND FINANCING A SCHOOL BUILDING

Building planning and the superintendent. — Few superintendents of schools, particularly those of several years of service, have escaped the problems involved in planning, constructing, and financing a school building. In the larger

buildings in the state department of education to check all building plans and to make suggestions looking toward improvements in the plans.

school systems new buildings are constantly under construction and require much of the superintendent's time; this is particularly true of the rapidly growing systems. Every person, therefore, who contemplates becoming a school superintendent should prepare himself for the direction and supervision of this important work. Many of the colleges and departments of education now offer courses on school-building planning and construction and, if at all possible, these courses should be pursued by the prospective superintendent. If they cannot be conveniently pursued, probably the best substitute for them is for the superintendent or prospective superintendent to read on his own initiative some of the many excellent books, survey reports, and magazine articles on the subject; some of the better of these treatises are listed in the Selected References at the close of this chapter. He should also inspect some of the excellent school plants which have been erected in other communities during recent years. When the superintendent is informed on school-building problems he can, by making suggestions here and there, save his school district several thousand dollars in the construction of one school building; moreover, he can help to secure a building which is beautiful, safe, and healthful, and adapted to the educational needs of the community. By these suggestions he can earn his salary for several years and place himself in the realm of educational statesmanship.

The steps. — The limits set for this chapter will not permit an exhaustive discussion of the necessary steps involved in planning, constructing, and financing a school building; several books would be needed for such a treatment. All that the chapter can hope to do — all that it will essay to do — is to list and to discuss briefly the steps. The steps, the approximate order in which they should be taken, and the order in which we shall discuss them, are as follows:

1. Determining the building needs.
2. Securing architectural services.
3. Making a schedule of rooms and equipment.

4. Selecting and purchasing a site.
5. Preparing and approving plans and specifications.
6. Letting the building contract.
7. Supervising and inspecting construction.
8. Paying for the building.

1. Determining the Building Needs

Making a building survey. — Before final decision is made to erect a school building, a careful survey of the building needs of the whole school system should be made. The survey should give particular attention, of course, to the educational needs of the locality which the contemplated building is expected to serve, but those needs should be considered in relation to those of the whole school system. Many building surveys have been made by various school systems during recent years and some of these may be consulted for suggestions on techniques and methods; a few of the better and more complete of the surveys published are listed under the Selected References at the close of this chapter.

In most instances building surveys can and should be made by the administrative staff of the school system rather than by outsiders. Making a survey, whether of the school buildings or of any other phase or phases of the school system, should not be too technical a function for a *qualified* superintendent of schools to direct or to perform. When, however, the superintendent is not qualified for such work, when he does not have the time for it, when there is question about his impartiality, or when for some other reason it is considered best policy to have an outsider make the survey, the services of such a person may be secured. As a rule, such services may be procured with little or no charge from the members of the state department of education, from the professors of school administration of the colleges and universities, and from similar specialists in school administration.

In making a survey of the school-building needs of a community, attention should be particularly directed to the following matters:

1. The extent of use of the present school plant should be ascertained. New buildings cannot be justified until the present plant is used to capacity or to near capacity. Chapter XI of this book suggests a technique which may be used in ascertaining whether a building is being used to its capacity.

2. The number and type of pupils to be immediately accommodated, and the number and type to be accommodated within the next few years, should be estimated as closely as possible. Moreover, the residences of these pupils should be ascertained. The residences of various ages and grades of pupils, both at present and during the next few years, may be shown by "spot maps."

3. The present buildings should be carefully scored to learn how many are satisfactory for further use in their present condition, how many should be rehabilitated to make them satisfactory for further use, and how many should be abandoned immediately or as soon as possible. Several standard score cards which may be used in scoring buildings and sites are listed in the Selected References at the close of this chapter.

4. The probable building needs of the whole school system should be ascertained for the next five, ten, twenty, or thirty years, and every new building should be planned and located in relation to this comprehensive program. Foresight and far-sight are needed, because every building which is erected tends to fix the school-building program of the community for several years.

2. Securing Architectural Services

Qualifications of the architect. — When facts are in hand showing that a new building is needed, and the decision has been made to erect the building, the next step is to employ an architect for the project. Upon the architect, more than upon any other person, depends the merit of the building. It is the architect's function to synthesize the recommendations of the construction engineers, on the one hand, and the plans of the educational authorities, on the other hand. He largely determines whether the building will be a beautiful or an ugly creation, whether it will meet the needs of a modern educational program, whether it will be free from hazards to its occupants, and whether it will be economically arranged and otherwise constructed without waste. School architecture is today a profession. The day when anyone — a school board member, a teacher, or a carpenter — could design a school

building belongs to the bygones. According to the Committee on Schoolhouse Planning and Construction of the National Education Association, a school architect should have five main qualifications, as follows: [1]

1. Familiarity with modern educational practice and the activities conducted in a modern school in so far as they affect planning. . . .
2. Open-mindedness to suggestions and willingness to revise plans so long as they can be improved. . . .
3. Originality and extended experience in school architecture. Every building presents new problems. . . .
4. Professional spirit shown by his desire to secure the solutions that are best for the community and its children.
5. Executive ability to keep all working harmoniously. . . .

His organization, including the experts he employs, should comprise masters of

a. Design as applicable to schools.
b. Construction appropriate to schools.
c. Heating and ventilating of schools.
d. Engineering.

Items in the schedule. — The building schedule should list each room needed, state its use and its proposed location in the building, indicate the pupil capacity of the room, list the type and location of equipment required in each room, and give any further suggestions or directions which the architect should have. These suggestions and directions, however, should not be unchangeable as the laws of the Medes and the Persians; on the contrary, the architect should be asked to confer with the board and its executive officers on any improvement which he believes might be made in the schedule. The schedule might appropriately be handed to the architect in such form as shown in Table III, this particular sample being a part of a schedule for a high school building designed to accommodate fifteen hundred students.

[1] Report of the Committee on Schoolhouse Planning and Construction of the National Education Association, p. 12.

TABLE III. — SAMPLE SUGGESTIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR A HIGH SCHOOL BUILDING

Kind of Room	*Approximate Dimensions in Feet*	*Number of Rooms Needed*	*Suggestions and Directions*
Study rooms .	24 × 50	6	Sixty desks and chairs in each; folding partitions to divide each into two recitation rooms if needed
Recitation rooms . .	22 × 28	20	Thirty tablet chairs in each
Auditorium .		1	Seating 1200 and having a sloping floor
Library . .	24 × 80	1	In approximately the center of the building; a librarian's workroom approximately 8′ × 12′ should be planned adjoining the library room
Rest rooms for teachers	14 × 14	2	One for men and one for women
Principal's office . .			Suite of three rooms on the first floor near the main entrance to the building

Selection of the architect. — The structures which they have designed testify silently, though cogently, to the fact that school architects, like other persons, do not have equal ability. By their accomplishments some architects are characterized as geniuses, others as hopeless incompetents, and still others as mediocre. Competition for school architectural services is keen. Let a board of education announce, or even hint, that it is contemplating the erection of a school building and a host of both competent and incompetent architects will apply for the architectural work, and by a strange irony the incompetent will usually argue their qualifications more insistently and persistently than the competent; a fact even more to be deplored is that the architect who talks "loudest and

longest," although he may not be the best qualified, frequently secures the position. Such unfortunate selections occur, not because the board members are careless and not desirous of doing the best thing for the schools, but because they are at a great disadvantage in architectural information, compared with the competing architects. Before employing an architect the board should carefully investigate his qualifications, and above all, it should counsel with the school superintendent. Two methods are employed in the various school systems for the selection of the architect.

The first and most widely used method is to choose him *without any competition.* Thus, if the architect has gained an enviable reputation, as shown by the buildings he has designed, he is selected without further ado. In a sense, there is competition in this plan, as indeed there should be, because the reputations and the abilities of the various architects are in silent competition.

The second, less frequently used method is to select him on the basis of a formally announced and otherwise carefully organized *competition.* Most authorities recommend that this method be used only when the first method fails. The Committee on Schoolhouse Planning and Construction of the National Education Association has the following to say regarding the relative merits of the *competition*, and the *no-competition*, methods: [1]

> Even after the competition is decided, a re-study of the plans is generally necessary. The winning plans frequently have to be revised so extensively as to be hardly recognizable. Better results would be secured if the committee and the architect were able to confer at every step, and this is not possible under the competition plan. Hence recourse to a competition should be taken only as a last resort when the committee is unable to decide between two or three competitors whose qualifications seem equally good.

If a competition is deemed desirable for a given situation, the conditions of it should be thoroughly planned and or-

[1] Report of the Committee on Schoolhouse Planning and Construction of the National Education Association, pp. 12–13.

ganized. When they have decided to use the competition plan, school officials would do well to procure, to read, and to follow a circular entitled *Architectural Competitions, a Circular of Advice and Information;* this circular is published by the American Institute of Architects, Octagon House, Washington, D.C.; it outlines the steps in organizing an architectural competition, and states the bases upon which members of the American Institute of Architects may, with propriety, engage in such a competition; it may be purchased for a few cents. According to the Committee on Schoolhouse Planning and Construction of the National Education Association, the following recommendations should be adopted in organizing and carrying out an architectural competition: [1]

> The competition should be limited absolutely to persons who have demonstrated their ability to plan and construct satisfactory schools. Moreover, a wide experience in school architecture is essential, as every school involves new problems. The young practitioner should secure his experience in the employ of a firm doing school work, and never where his mistakes must be at the expense of the public and its youth. The winning of a competition, if not limited to competent persons, is no guarantee that the person is competent, since the competition plans do not include details of planning and do not reveal a knowledge of construction or executive ability.
>
> It should be noted that successful experience in planning elementary schools is not of itself a sufficient preparation for planning high schools. . . .
>
> Each competitor should be given a definite schedule of rooms desired. . . .
>
> The committee making the award should have the advice of one or more persons who are experts in studying and judging plans for public schools on the basis of their adaptation to educational needs. Frequently the committee has less actual knowledge of requirements than the competing architects, and consequently the best plan is not likely to be selected.
>
> Each competitor should receive an honorarium in recognition of his services.

Types of architectural organization. — Five types of ar-

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 11–12.

chitectural organizations are being used in the various school systems. These are: [1]

1. *The plan of employing an architect for each building and of holding him responsible for developing all plans and specifications, for the inspection and supervision of construction, and for the completion of the building.* For his services, he is paid a fee, which is usually 6 per cent of the cost of the building. This plan is by far the most frequently used; it is used universally in the smaller cities and rural districts, and in most of the larger city systems as well.

2. *The plan of employing a supervising architect who exercises general supervision over the project architects.* This plan has been used in a few of the larger cities which have had large, though short and intensive, building programs.

3. *A plan which combines certain features of the two plans above mentioned.* In this plan a supervising architect is employed as well as project architects; however, unlike plans 1 and 2 the project architects are not responsible for the inspection and supervision of construction. Such inspection and supervision is otherwise provided by the board of education.

4. *The plan of employing a complete architectural organization on a salary basis.* Obviously such a plan is practicable only in the large and rapidly growing school systems — systems which always have under way a large amount of construction. School systems which employ salaried architects are able to secure architectural services much cheaper than systems which employ their architects on a percentage or fee basis.

5. The plan of having the architects of the community select one of their number to be responsible for planning the project, his work to be under the general supervision of the whole group. This plan is generally called the "associated-architects" plan. It has been used in only a few school systems, and there with little success. It is another proof of the adage that, "Too many cooks spoil the broth."

3. Making a Schedule of Rooms and Equipment

Responsibility for the schedule. — Before the architect can begin drawing the plans of the building he must know the uses to which the building is to be put. However, it is not his business to decide what those uses should be; they should grow out of the needs of the community and should be approved by the board of education. For the guidance of the architect,

[1] For a detailed description of these types and a discussion of their relative merits, the interested reader is referred to the author's *The Business Administration of a School System*, pp. 154–158.



FIG. 19. — A Newer Type of Classroom. (One of the classrooms in the Huntington School, San Marino, California.)

therefore, the board of education and its executive officers should prepare a schedule of rooms for the proposed building; this schedule should be based on full consciousness of the educational needs of the community. The schedule should be prepared by the superintendent, or his representative, and be submitted to the board of education for its criticism and approval before being handed to the architect.

The manner in which the schedule is prepared determines in large measure the merit of the building, and considerable thought must be devoted to it. In its preparation an intensive study of the needs of the community, which the building is being designed to serve, should be made. Suggestions from as many competent persons as possible should be secured; in particular, the suggestions of the principal and the teachers of the school, provided such employees are then known, should be secured.

Because the equipment of the building is so frequently neglected, particular attention should be called to the need for an *equipment plan*. This plan should indicate the type and location of each item of equipment in each room and in every other part of the building. Unless these details are arranged, the equipment desired may not suit the space available. It is not uncommon for school officials to spend several hundred thousand dollars in the erection of a building yet neglect to budget any funds for equipping the building. Many communities have been compelled to transfer "antique" and dilapidated equipment from the old school building to the new one or to permit the new one to remain idle until the people could vote an extra tax levy for the equipment. Equipment of the "stagecoach" days is found in entirely too many of our schools.

4. Selecting and Purchasing a Site

When to select. — The site should be selected and purchased, or an option taken on it, a few years before it will be needed for building purposes. This recommendation applies

with particular cogency to city school systems, and especially to those which are growing rapidly. Early selection is urged for the following reasons:

1. It will help to assure the best available site. If the selection is delayed until a few weeks or months before the building is to be constructed, there may have to be a compromise between what is desirable and what is obtainable.
2. The site can usually be obtained at a much cheaper price. Land values tend to rise rapidly in a growing neighborhood.
3. It will enable the school authorities to protest the establishment in that community of any business which is detrimental to a wholesome school environment.

Criteria for selecting. — Although there is no basis by which the advantages of one site compared with another may be determined with mathematical precision, there are certain criteria which, if kept in mind, should lead to a more accurate judgment. In general, the following criteria should be kept in mind in selecting a site; it is to be remembered, however, that the type of school — elementary or secondary, urban or rural — will largely determine the location, kind, and size of site to be chosen: [1]

1. It should be within easy, or feasible, walking or transportation distance of the pupils whom it is designed to serve. The limits beyond which pupils should not be required to walk cannot, of course, be objectively determined, but there is considerable agreement in opinion that elementary school pupils should not be required to walk more than three-fourths of a mile and high school pupils not more than one and one-half miles. The direction in which the community is growing should be kept in mind as well as the location of the present population. Spot maps locating the *present* enrollment and others locating the *prospective* enrollments should be constructed. The direction or trend of population growth may be ascertained from a study of such things as birth certificates, new factories, new residential districts, and new public utilities and extensions. In addition to the above criteria, the site should be near, but not too near, to transportation facilities, should be located in desirable relation to the other schools of the community, should be located with reference to the

[1] Announcing these criteria to the public and following them would eliminate many of the community factions which are frequently engendered over the selection of school sites.

convenience and community interests of the people in mind, and should have the proper elevation.

2. It should be located in an environment which would be wholesome for conducting a school. It should be free from all moral and physical hazards, unsanitary conditions, and other undesirable influences. Nearness to such things as railroads, most factories, dangerous bodies of water, highways with much traffic, noise, and dust, bad odors, stone quarries, stockyards, cliffs, and forests which are likely to have ravaging fires, should be avoided.

3. The size, shape, and topography should meet proper standards. The *size* will be determined by several factors such as the number of pupils to be accommodated, the availability of land at a reasonable price, and the type of school. In general, though, the site should be large enough to afford ample space for properly placing the building, for playgrounds, for landscaping, for experimental gardening, and for any probable growth in the enrollment of the school. Regarding the *shape* of the site, dimensions of two by three, three by four, three by five, four by five, or of approximately one of these are more desirable than dimensions of the so-called "shoestring" sort. The *topography* of the site should be such as to make it readily usable without large expense for grading.

4. The soil should be quick-drying, be free from decaying organic matter and free from artificial construction. Moreover, it should permit gardening, a good lawn, and landscaping. The sandy-loam soil meets these standards in an excellent way.

5. Other things being equal, the cheapest site should be selected. It should not be forgotten, though, that a cheap site may turn out to be an expensive one.

6. The drainage should be natural, or it should be possible cheaply and easily to construct an artificial drainage system.

7. The water supply should be sufficient and of a good quality.

8. The site should receive sunlight during the entire school day.

Methods of purchasing. — In purchasing the school site one of the three following methods may be used, the particular method to be used in any case being determined by local conditions:

1. *Purchasing it direct from the owner or owners, without the mediation of a third party.* This method may be advantageously used when the owner is public-spirited and desires only a fair or legitimate price for his property. Some owners are sufficiently public-spirited that they will sell their property cheaper to the schools than they would to an individual.

2. *Purchasing it through the mediation of a third party.* This method, as well as the third method, may be advantageously used when the owner believes in, and practices, the public-be-damned policy.

3. *Exercising the right of eminent domain — that is, the use of condemnation proceedings.* This method may be appropriately used in dealing with owners such as were mentioned under method two. In addition to preventing a selfish owner from "holding up" the public, the method has the merit of stopping the cry of graft — a cry which is occasionally raised when sites for public buildings are purchased. Moreover, from the point of view of the owner the method cannot be criticized because the owner is assured a legitimate and fair price for his property. In some communities, though, appraisers have exhibited too much sympathy for the owner of the property and too little respect for the public's purse.

5. Preparing and Approving Plans and Specifications

Objectives in planning. — Regarding the objectives which school officials and architects should have in mind in planning school buildings, we can do no better than to quote from the Report of the Committee on Schoolhouse Planning and Construction of the National Education Association (pp. 14–19). According to that report a school building should have nine qualities, as follows:

1. *Adaptation to educational needs.* The plan should conform to the schedule of rooms already adopted.

2. *Safety.* The corridors and stairways should permit the building to be vacated in three minutes even if one stairway is made useless by smoke. . . .

3. *Healthfulness.* Every room should have abundant natural light. . . .

The toilets should be distributed conveniently on each floor and should have windows opening directly to the open air. . . .

There should be a sufficient number of bubblers for drinking purposes, so located that they will not block traffic. . . .

Washbowls should be adequate in number. . . .

To avoid damp, insanitary, or poorly ventilated rooms there should be no basement as this term is usually understood, with the possible exception of space for the heating plant. This plant should, when possible, be located entirely without the confines of the building.

In rural communities the one-story type is often desirable, as it is a reasonable guarantee of safety in case of fire.

To avoid excessive climbing of stairs the building should not contain

more than three stories and a basement, except in congested cities where land is very expensive. . . .

4. *Convenience.* The location of rooms with reference to one another should be carefully studied. . . .

5. *Expansiveness.* The building should be so planned that it can be enlarged as much as may be needed without unnecessary cost and without cutting off natural light and ventilation of any of the existing rooms. . . .

6. *Flexibility.* Since it is not possible to foresee all the requirements of the future, every school building should be so planned and constructed that changes can be made if necessary in the lengths of the rooms. . . .

7. *Aesthetic fitness.* The skill of the architect as a designer is shown by his ability to clothe the building with a pleasing exterior without doing violence to the interior. The exterior elevation should reflect the major functions of the school itself. It should give evidence of the fact that the building is a pleasant and attractive place in which young people are happily and busily engaged in worth-while enterprises. . . .

The interior should likewise produce attractive and pleasing effects. The decorations should be modest and cheerful. The finish must be such as to lead the pupils to take pride in keeping the building free from injury and all disfiguration.

8. *Economy.* Economy in the plan is secured by
   a. Accurate determination of the size needed for each room. This depends in turn upon the adoption of scientifically studied layouts. . . .
   b. Duplicate uses of rooms.
   c. Elimination of waste areas. The percentage of floor area devoted to "instruction" (which includes not only classrooms, laboratories, and shops but also the auditorium, gymnasium, and library and their accessories and study halls, also lunch rooms if used as study halls) should not be less than 50 per cent of the total floor area, and may, under favorable conditions and careful planning, reach 60 per cent or even more.[1]

Style of architecture and exterior outline. — In starting to design a school building one of the first decisions which must be made is regarding the style of architecture and the type of

[1] Page 1 of the report recommends that the several parts of the building should utilize approximately the following percentages of space: walls and partitions, not over 10 per cent; flues, not over 3 per cent; stairs and corridors, not over 20 per cent; accessories, not over 1 per cent; administration, not over 16 per cent; and instruction, not less than 50 per cent.

exterior outline to be adopted. Considerable thought must be given to these matters, lest the wrong decision result in such incongruities as an ugly building, a poor adaptation of the building to the site, poor orientation, lack of natural light, and inability to expand or modify.

There are seven dominant styles of architecture which have been, and are being, used in American school buildings:

1. The American Colonial.
2. The Romanesque.
3. The Spanish.
4. The Dutch-German.
5. The Gothic, particularly the Tudor Gothic.
6. The Italian.
7. A style which has not yet been named, and which is still somewhat incoherent. This form is still a "crude expression of the industrial character of the times, a purely utilitarian type, devoid of beauty and inspiration." This nondescript style is used more than any other. It is sometimes called "modernistic" and is being rapidly improved.

Only the seventh style of architecture is entirely native to America, and it cannot be referred to with pride because of its lack of beauty and inspiration; it resembles too much a factory building. Perhaps sometime our architects will develop a style of architecture which will be distinctly American, and will reflect the spirit and the nature of the American democracy. Until a beautiful type of American architecture has been developed, one of the seven styles listed above will have to be used.

Public funds may be legitimately spent for beauty, and the school buildings should be the most beautiful buildings of a community. Barren communities especially need the uplifting influence of beautiful school buildings. Gingerbread ornamentation, though, should not be mistaken for beauty, as seems to have been the case in the erection of many school buildings. Utility and beauty can be combined in the same design. In his *Seven Lamps of Architecture*, John Ruskin defines architecture in the following words: "Architecture is the art

which so disposes and adorns the edifices raised by man for whatsoever uses, that the sight of them may contribute to his mental health, power, and pleasure." Too few of our school buildings meet Ruskin's test.

Two types of general plans or exterior outlines for school buildings are used — the *open* and the *closed*. The open plans have usually imitated the letters of the alphabet, and every year sees new plans evolved. The following types of open plans have been evolved:

1. The E.
2. The H.
3. The I.
4. The T.
5. The U.
6. The Y.

The following closed plans have been evolved:

1. The solid rectangle.
2. The hollow rectangle.
3. The rectangle with interior auditorium and courts.

During recent years most school buildings have been constructed according to the *open* plan. Compared with the closed plan, the open plan usually affords better natural light and ventilation, and makes future extensions and modifications of the building more practicable.

The site plan. — In order that the building may be properly placed on the site, the architect should be instructed, should he forget it, to draw a site, or plot, plan showing the following:

1. The boundaries and topography of the site, including the size and shape.
2. The points of the compass.
3. The exterior outline of the building and its future extensions as they will be located on the site. The space reserved for outdoor activities such as physical education and gardening should also be indicated.
4. The location on the site of other buildings, of sewers, of gas mains, of electric mains, and of water mains in their relation to the school building.

Preliminary floor plans and equipment plans. — As soon as the architect has been handed the schedule of rooms, and

the list of equipment, he may start preparing the preliminary floor plans and equipment plans. The importance of the room and equipment schedule, and the general standards which such a schedule should meet, have been earlier discussed in this chapter, and more need not be said about them here. The floor plans should show for each floor the following: the points of the compass; the location and width of corridors and stairways; the location, pupil capacity, and dimensions of administrative offices, health rooms, teachers' rest rooms, toilets, and similar rooms; and the location and dimensions of lockers or of similar facilities for the care of pupils' wraps.

The equipment plans should show the location and the width of all aisles and passageways and should indicate the location and the dimensions of all equipment whether fixed or movable. As has been stated earlier, the equipment is often entirely forgotten when school buildings are being planned. Such lack of foresight often results in equipment space that is too large, too small, or poorly adapted in some other way.

After the preliminary floor plans and equipment plans have been sketched by the architect they should be carefully scrutinized by the board of education and its executive officers to see whether they can be improved.[1] Moreover, they should be submitted to the principal and the teachers of the school, provided such employees are then known, for their suggestions and criticisms. This checking, and this attempt at securing suggestions and criticisms, will often be the means of ascertaining places where the plans may be improved. The most competent architects do not claim that they are infallible, and they welcome constructive criticisms.

Working drawings and specifications. — When the preliminary floor plans and equipment plans have been approved by the board of education and its executive officers, the architect may begin the preparation of the working drawings.

[1] For detailed suggestions on the checking of specifications, the interested reader is referred to Leo Byrne's *Check List Materials for Public School Building Specifications.*

These drawings, together with the specifications, are the guide to be followed by the contractor in the construction of the building; moreover, they must be prepared for the perusal of all contractors who are interested in placing bids for the building contract. The drawings should include site and floor plans, sections, elevations, and plans for heating, ventilating, plumbing, and electrical work. [1]

When the working drawings have been completed by the architect they should be carefully scrutinized by the board of education and its executive officers to make sure that they are correct in every detail. Making changes in the working drawings is difficult and expensive, yet if those advisable or necessary are not made there will likely be regrets on the part of all persons concerned.

The *specifications* supplement the working drawings. They describe in detail the materials to be furnished, the methods to be used, and the labor to be performed in the erection of the building and in equipping it. To prepare them, at least for a large building, requires hundreds of hours. Like the working drawings, they should be checked carefully by the board of education and its executive officers. The chief criteria which they should meet are completeness, conciseness, and clarity. It is obvious that the architect, whose function it is to prepare them, must be well acquainted with various materials and processes. In the case of large buildings they should be printed and sufficient copies procured for the use of all prospective bidders; in the case of smaller buildings typewritten or mimeographed copies will usually suffice. Upon the payment of a specified fee, most boards of education provide a copy of the working drawings and specifications to any interested person, especially to a prospective bidder on the building contract or on one of its parts.

[1] For a detailed statement of the standards which a set of working drawings should meet, the interested reader may consult Strayer and Engelhardt's *School-Building Problems*, pp. 202–204. See also J. J. Donovan's *A Method of Procedure and Checking Schedule for Planning School Buildings.*

6. Letting the Building Contract

Securing bids. — When the working drawings and specifications have been approved by the board of education, plans should be made for letting the contract or contracts. Separate contracts are usually made for the erection of the building and for all or certain parts of its equipment; this is especially the practice in large plants.

All such contracts should be made only on the basis of bids —in fact, this procedure is required everywhere by statute and must be followed. The details usually mentioned in the laws are: the time and method of advertising for bids; the method of making bids and the time of opening them; the selection of the lowest responsible bidder and the rejection of bids; and the type of contract and bond.

Sufficient advertising should be conducted to secure an adequate number of bidders. Most of the states have statutes governing advertising for bids; these statutes usually require the advertising to be carried at least once in a newspaper of general circulation in the school district or the posting of an advertisement in one or more public places in the district. School officials who have used the circular letter state that it is more effective than the other methods of advertising.

In order that each bidder may know exactly all bases on which he is bidding, he should be provided with a copy of the drawings and specifications and a statement of the conditions surrounding the bidding. Accompanying these documents should be a bidder's blank. Sample bidders' blanks may be secured at small cost from the American Institute of Architects, Octagon House, Washington, D.C. Each bid should be accompanied by a certified check amounting to at least 10 per cent of the bid. These checks are returned, of course, after the contract has been awarded.

The bids should be opened by the board of education at a public meeting and the "lowest best" bid determined. The board of education has the duty of determining whether the lowest bidder is sufficiently "responsible" to justify awarding

the contract to him. Having determined the successful bidder, the board should pass a resolution indicating that his bid has been accepted. This resolution, like all resolutions of the board, should be placed in the minutes.

Contract and bond. — The successful bidder should be required to enter into a *written* contract with the board of education and to give bond. The contract and bond forms issued by the American Institute of Architects have won universal approval and are therefore commended.

A surety bond for the full and satisfactory performance of the provisions of the contract should be required of the contractor. State laws frequently prescribe the nature and amount of the bond to be required. In the absence of such laws in any state it is recommended that a surety bond for the full amount of the contract be required, and that this be written by companies authorized to do business in the state, rather than by individuals.

7. Supervising and Inspecting Construction

Necessity for. — During the erection of the building, and always before it is accepted from the contractor, school officials should be assured that all construction has been performed according to the plans and specifications and according to the contract. In order that this assurance may be given it is necessary to have a definite plan for the supervision and inspection of construction. Such supervision and inspection should see that all materials used, all workmanship, and all other parts and phases of the construction follow the plans and specifications meticulously, unless the consent of the board of education to use as good, or better, substitutes is secured in writing.

Methods of securing. — Three methods of supervising and inspecting construction are being used in the various school systems:

1. *Supervision and inspection by the architect.* Under this practice the

architect, or one of his representatives, is inspecting the project almost constantly. This method is by far the most commonly employed.

2. *Supervision and inspection by the board of education.* Under this practice the board of education employs someone other than the architect to be responsible for seeing that all construction is done according to plans and specifications.

3. *Supervision and inspection by both the architect and the board of education.* This practice has the advantage of giving all parties, who are interested in the construction of the building, a definite responsibility for seeing that the construction is done according to plans and specifications. It gives the architect a responsibility, and he is interested because his prestige is at stake; the completed building will stand for years — possibly for ages — as a testimonial, good or bad, to his workmanship. Likewise the plan gives the board of education a responsibility, and such responsibility should be given to the board because as representatives of the people of the community they pay for the building; they cannot risk being "cheated" either intentionally or accidentally.

8. Paying for the Building

Methods of financing. — Two methods of paying for capital outlays are being used in the various school systems: (1) paying for them by bonding and (2) paying for them from the proceeds of current taxes. When a school system bonds, it simply borrows money, and gives its written promise, that is, its *bond*, that it will repay the money at a specified time and with a stipulated rate of interest. Most school systems today are bonding to secure the money for financing their capital outlays; this is especially true of the small systems.

Whether a school system should bond for its capital outlays or should pay for them out of the proceeds of current taxes has been, and is, a much-discussed question. The question has not yet been answered, nor can it be categorically answered for every situation. One school system might justifiably bond for its capital outlays, whereas another should pay from current taxes.

The chief argument advanced against bonding is that it entails a high interest charge. Not much figuring is needed to show that the interest payments on a bond issue soon

amount to a large sum. Given the usual rate of interest, not many years are required for the interest to equal the principal. In many school systems a large part of the revenue must be devoted to the payment of interest charges on capital outlays; in fact, a few systems must devote as much to interest charges and to retiring bonds as they devote to all other functions, and when this is true the educational program suffers.

The chief argument advanced in favor of bonding is that it distributes the payment for capital outlays over several years and does not place an undue hardship on the taxpayer. Moreover, the plan permits future generations to help pay for the permanent improvements which they will use. The smaller the school system the more cogent is the argument for bonding. The small system with a low tax duplicate could not pay for a school building immediately without an unusually high tax rate — a rate which might unduly disturb if not wreck the economic life of the community.

Most authorities, however, hold the opinion that school systems — all public institutions, for that matter — should attempt to organize their finances in such a manner that they could pay for their capital outlays from the proceeds of current taxes. These authorities do not approve going in debt, particularly when the financial condition of the community does not make it necessary. The same financial principles which guide the individual should also guide an organization or an institution. One of these principles generally accepted in private finance is that a person should not go in debt unless it is necessary; if he goes in debt, he should arrange to get out as quickly as possible. In spite of warnings of financial disaster if the trend toward increasing the school debt is not soon reversed, every year sees a few hundred millions added to that debt in the whole nation. Two methods of paying as you go for capital outlays are being used by the various school systems. These are:

1. By levying a tax sufficiently large to pay for the improvement in a year or two. This is the most commonly used of the pay-as-you-go methods.

2. By placing in a building fund each year a certain amount of money, so that when the improvement is needed all or most of the money for it will be available. This method is infrequently used. It has certain disadvantages which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Two plans of bonding, or of redeeming bonds, are being used. These are:

1. The *serial-bond* plan, in which provision is made for retiring a specified portion of the total debt each year or at some other short and stated interval. The tendency in all progressive school systems which bond is toward the use of the serial-bond plan. In fact, its advantages are so generally recognized that many states prohibit the use of any other type of bond by public authorities. Its chief advantage is that the community is obliged to pay for its bonds as it goes along.

2. The *straight-bond* plan, in which the bond is issued for a specified number of years and all of it is redeemed at the end of that period. Interest on the bond is paid annually or at some other stated interval. This plan is not recommended, because of the heavy interest charges which it entails and the large tax rate required when the time comes for redeeming the bond. Many school systems have issued straight bonds and have found themselves unable to redeem them when they came due. In such instances the bonds have had to be *refunded*, that is, resold for another specified number of years. Interest charges in such practices often amount to two or three times as much as the principal.

In an attempt to make the retirement of straight bonds more easy and sure a few school systems have created a *sinking fund*, that is, they have made provision for placing a certain amount of money annually into a fund with the expectation that this fund would retire the bonds when they came due. Although such a plan may appear practicable at first glance, it is not recommended because most school systems cannot, will not, or at least do not, administer the sinking fund in a businesslike manner.

Summary of principles for financing capital outlays. — Following are summarized the chief principles which should be kept in mind in financing capital outlays:

1. Carefully estimate the cost of the improvement and arrange for sufficient money to finance it. Do not use the lump-sum plan of estimating, either for the building or its equipment.

2. By proper methods of advertising secure the best bids possible on the contract or contracts.

3. Consider the practicability of using the pay-as-you-go plan, and *use* it, if at all possible. If it is deemed more practicable to finance the improvement by bonding, keep in mind the following suggestions.

4. Remember that in these days of rapidly mounting school costs a well-organized publicity campaign is usually necessary to secure public endorsement of a bond issue. Chapter XXIX of this book discusses methods of conducting a publicity campaign.

5. See that all details of the bond issue are in meticulous accord with the statutes and court decisions of the state. Many bond issues have been invalidated because of a mistake made in handling some detail. Legal advice is usually advisable.

6. Study the money market and attempt to sell the bonds when the market is best. Usually there are broad seasonal swings in the money market.

7. Advertise the sale of the bonds by such means as well-prepared circular letters and advertisements in the newspapers and financial journals.

8. Arrange for selling the bonds at a public rather than a private sale. Bonds usually sell better at a public sale; moreover, the public is likely to be better satisfied.

9. Use the serial-bond plan rather than the straight-bond plan.

10. Do not make the term of the bond issue any longer than necessary. Get out of debt as quickly as possible is a good rule for the school system to follow.

11. Make the denominations of the bonds small enough to appeal to the relatively small investor, but not so small that the record keeping would become burdensome.

12. Consider the advisability of having a recall provision in the bonds, particularly after they have run for five years or so. The recall provision is particularly recommended when interest rates are above normal.

13. Keep a record of all bonds issued. The data which should be recorded are: the total outstanding bonded indebtedness for schools; the amount of bonds maturing each year; the improvements secured by each bond issue; and the time and place for paying the principal and the interest on each issue. This record should be filed in a fireproof safe or vault.

14. Keep the credit of the school system good by meeting all bond payments on the day due. Avoid being one of the few defaulting school systems.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Compared with the expenditure for teachers, are the schools spending too much for buildings? Explain.

2. Would you favor the employment of a school architect on an annual salary or the employment of project architects on a commission basis? Why? What conditions would determine your decision? Explain.

3. Should the same style of architecture be used in all the school buildings of a community or should different styles be used? Explain.

4. Would the Spanish style of architecture be as appropriate for a school building in a New England state as it is in a state located in the Southwest? Explain.

5. Are school officials justified in spending public funds for making school buildings beautiful? Why or why not?

6. Is sufficient attention given to the beautification of school sites? Explain.

7. In planning and constructing a school building what provisions should be made for enlarging or revising the building?

8. Would you favor in every state department of education, as a few states already have, a division of schoolhouse planning? Why or why not? What powers and duties would you favor for such a division? Should it have the power to approve and to reject plans and specifications? Why or why not?

9. Should the principal, the teachers, and the other employees of a school be consulted when the school building is being planned? Why or why not? How should the equipment for the building be selected?

10. Should a consulting mechanical equipment engineer be employed when a school building is being planned?

11. Would it be a good investment to erect school buildings which will "last for ages"? Why or why not?

12. In planning and constructing school buildings what opportunities are there for sane standardization? What are the dangers of such standardization?

13. What are some of the most frequent wastes which you have observed in the planning of school buildings?

14. What are some differences between school buildings erected today and those erected fifty years ago?

15. Why are small school buildings likely to be wasteful?

16. Account for the fact that the schools of the rural communities are

often poorly located. What are the results of such location? What are some possible remedies?

17. What contract forms between school officials and the architect and between school officials and the contractors may be used? (See the contract forms of the American Institute of Architects.)

18. How may the cost of a proposed school building be estimated? (See the technique of the American Institute of Architects.)

19. Through what means may the sale of school bonds be advertised? What is the relative merit of these means? In what financial journals and newspapers may the advertising be run?

20. What factors should determine the length of term for which bonds shall be issued? Explain.

21. What factors should determine the retirement plan for school bonds? What plans are there for the retirement of serial bonds and when may each plan be used?

22. In selling bonds why should the condition of the money market be kept in mind? During which months do bonds usually sell best? Why?

23. How may the danger of community factions developing over the selection of a school site be avoided or decreased?

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Chapter XI

UTILIZATION OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS

CAPACITY UTILIZATION OF BUILDINGS

Waste from unused buildings. — According to the United States Office of Education, the estimated value of all property in the United States used for school purposes is more than eight billion dollars. This constitutes an enormous outlay and is a challenge to school officials to use to the fullest extent the conveniences which the outlay has provided. That the challenge has not been fully accepted by school officials is made clear when it is observed that practically all studies of the use of school buildings have shown that only the exceptional building has all its rooms occupied every period in the school day, and that buildings which make use of every pupil station every period in the school day are almost unknown. A *pupil station* is defined as a seat or other place for one pupil in a classroom, shop, laboratory, library, gymnasium, or other school center.

One of the most extensive studies of the utilization of school buildings was made by E. L. Morphet.[1] He investigated the utilization of 58 junior and senior high school buildings having enrollments ranging from 80 to 3365. In spite of the fact that the officials of all these schools regarded them as overcrowded, and that six of the schools were operating on half-day sessions, Morphet found the average percentage of *room utilization* in the 58 schools to be only 75.4, and the average percentage of *pupil-station utilization* to be only 41.1.

[1] *The Measurement and Interpretation of School Building Utilization*, p. 83.

In the whole nation the annual waste resulting from the failure to utilize school buildings to capacity is colossal. Not all this waste can be eliminated, but much of it can be. The chief means of eliminating it are: first, the use of greater foresight in planning the buildings and, second, better program making for the classes which meet in the buildings.

The range of cost of school buildings today is from a few thousand dollars to two or three million dollars; in fact, a single classroom in a modern school building costs from five to fifteen thousand dollars, depending upon the materials of construction and the workmanship. In computing costs, if school officials were required to include an interest charge on capital outlays, as do private concerns, the large amount of waste entailed by idle school plants would be brought forcibly to attention. The annual interest charge, for example, on a $100,000 building, figuring the interest at a rate of 4 per cent, is $4000; if the building is used to only one-half of its capacity, as is true of many buildings, the annual waste in interest is $2000.

The use of the school plant is often contrasted with the use of industrial plants, and from this contrast the conclusion is reached that the typical industry would soon go bankrupt if it did not use its plant a larger number of hours during the day, more days during the week, and more months during the year than the typical school system uses its plant. Whereas the typical industry attempts to use its plant during the twenty-four hours of the day, six or seven days during the week, and the twelve months of the year, the schools use their plant but five or six hours of the day, five days of the week, and seven, eight, or nine months of the year.

Although this comparison is frequently made, the schools should not emulate industries in the use of their plants. Not even a miser would have the heart to propose that the schools provide "day and night shifts" of pupils and teachers, nor to recommend that the schools require attendance of the

pupils six or seven days during the week. The few attempts which have been made in the elementary and secondary schools to keep the schools running the twelve months in the year have not met with the generous approval of the public or of teachers and school officials. In the nature of things industries will probably continue to use their plants a much larger percentage of the time than will the schools; the schools cannot be run on the factory schedule. All that the public insists upon, and the end which school officials should strive to attain, is capacity or near-capacity use of the school plant during the school day.

In Chapter X, under the heading "Planning, Constructing, and Financing Schoool Plants," the necessity for carefully studying the educational needs of a community and its building requirements, before a school building is erected, was pointed out. In planning a school building the chief questions which should be asked regarding the use of the building are: what type of curriculum and of teaching methods shall be followed? How many class periods will there be in the school day? What school subjects will be offered in the building? How many sections or classes in each subject will be offered in the building? How many sections or classes in each subject will be needed immediately and how many will be needed within the next few years? How many pupils will there be in each class? When these questions have been properly answered the planning of the building may be begun. Unless care and foresight are given to the planning of the building there is danger that when the building is completed it will be too large or too small. After the building has been erected little can be done to correct the wastes resulting from rooms that are too large or too small or otherwise poorly suited to the classes meeting in them.

Measuring building utilization. — Before school officials can justly propose the erection of new school buildings and before they can legitimately request the public to finance these buildings they should demonstrate that the present

buildings are too small, unsafe, unsanitary, or inadequate in some other regard. When school officials accept such a challenge they often find that new buildings are not necessary. For example, when a certain superintendent of schools in a large city was elected to his position a few years ago he found what appeared to be a big shortage in school-plant facilities. Many children were on half-day school rations, and there was a general cry from pupils, parents, and teachers for more school buildings. In meeting the situation the first step in the program of the superintendent was, with the co-operation of the principals of the several schools, to ascertain the extent of use of the buildings then in operation. This survey, which required only a few hours to make, brought out the fact that there was no school building in the city which did not have at least one classroom that was not used at all or was used only a small part of the school day. The survey showed further that in many instances the classes were unnecessarily small and that these small classes, containing ten, fifteen, or twenty pupils, were often housed in classrooms which could have comfortably cared for twenty-five to forty pupils.

The step which the superintendent and the principals took to remedy this situation was to place the proper number of pupils in each class and classroom and to keep each classroom occupied every period during the school day. By this piece of educational engineering and exhibition of common sense fifteen hundred more pupils were comfortably housed in the plant then available. If these pupils could not have been housed in the existing plant, the erection of other buildings would have been necessary. Assuming that a new classroom would have been necessary for each thirty pupils, fifty additional classrooms would have been needed; and assuming that each classroom would have cost $12,500 — which was then the median cost of classrooms in that city — the cost of the new construction would have amounted to $625,000.

In making an investigation of the utilization of a school building a table such as Table IV should be constructed for

the building. This table shows the number of pupil stations in each room, the weekly pupil-station capacity of each room based on a five-day week and an eight-period day, the actual

TABLE IV. — THE RELATION BETWEEN THE CAPACITY OF A CERTAIN HIGH SCHOOL BUILDING AND THE ACTUAL USE OF THE BUILDING

No. and Kind of Room	*No. of Pupil Stations in Room*	*Weekly Pupil-Station Capacity of Room**	*Actual Weekly Use of Pupil Stations in Room*	*Percentage of Capacity Used*
1 Recitation room	40	1600	1155	72.18
2 Recitation room	29	1160	685	59.05
3 Recitation room	40	1600	1090	68.12
5 Recitation room	24	960	580	60.41
7 Recitation room	40	1600	1030	64.37
8 Recitation room	40	1600	1090	68.12
9 Biology laboratory	30	1200	235	19.59
10 Recitation room	33	1320	807	61.13
11 Chemistry laboratory	24	960	120	12.5
12 Physics laboratory	24	960	128	13.33
14 Recitation room	33	1320	856	64.84
19 Recitation room	40	1600	1055	65.93
20 Recitation room	28	1120	329	29.37
21 Recitation room	40	1600	1120	70.00
23 Recitation room	24	960	664	69.16
25 Recitation room	24	960	795	82.81
26 Assembly	768	30720	5513	17.94
27 Recitation room	27	1080	720	66.66
28 Recitation room	29	1160	778	67.06
29 Bookkeeping room	28	1120	940	83.92
30 Recitation room	23	920	920	100.00
31 Typewriting room	28	1120	676	60.35
36 Sewing room	24	960	510	53.12
37 Cooking room	24	960	450	46.87
45 Mechanical-drawing room	30	1200	530	44.16
48 Manual-training room	30	1200	240	20.00
43 Cafeteria	90	3600	600	16.66
Gymnasium	50	200	867	43.35
Gymnasium balcony	300	12000		
Total	1964	78560	24483	31.16
Total, excluding gymnasium and balcony, assembly, and cafeteria	756	30240	18370	60.75

* The figures in this column are procured by multiplying the figures in the preceding column by 40, which is the number of recitation periods per week.

weekly use of the pupil stations in each room, and the percentage which the actual weekly use of each room is of the weekly pupil-station capacity of each room.

Table IV does not, however, tell the whole story of the utilization of a school building. This particular table shows, for example, that Room 9, which is the biology laboratory, is used to only 19.59 per cent of its capacity, but it does not indicate whether small classes, or a lack of use of the room during one or more periods of the day, or both these causes, is responsible for the small percentage of use. To provide the complete information, a table such as Table V is necessary; in fact, the making of such a table should precede the making of a table such as Table IV.[1] Table V shows the number of pupils in each room during each period of each day of the week and indicates any vacancy for each room during each day of the week. It is observed, for example, that Room 11, which is the chemistry laboratory, is used during only four of the forty periods of the week, and that Room 3, which is a recitation room, is used every period of the week.

Because of the lack of foresight in planning school buildings, and because of the difficulties encountered in program making, especially in high schools, it will seldom be possible to secure a 100 per cent utilization of any building. In the typical school organization it will usually be impossible to make capacity use of such rooms as the auditorium, cafeteria, gymnasium, laboratories, and shops; this will be particularly true of schools having small enrollments and of those having departmental teaching. In spite of the fact that it will seldom be attainable, a 100 per cent use should be kept in mind as the ideal. The school official should always keep in mind *ideal* practice, although he will seldom be able to attain it. He will more surely approach the realization of ideals when he has them in mind than would be the case if he were never conscious of them.

[1] A form such as Fig. 20 may be used for securing such data for each classroom.

TABLE V. — USE OF ROOMS OF A CERTAIN HIGH SCHOOL BY DAYS AND PERIODS

Rooms		*1*	*2*	*3*	*5*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*	*12*	*14*	*19*	*20*	*21*	*23*	*25*	*26*	*27*	*28*	*29*	*30*	*31*	*36*	*37*	*43*	*45*	*48*	*Gymnasium*
Monday	1	35	—	38	24	39	38	—	31	—	—	30	32	25	39	—	23	125	22	21	27	23	—	—	—	30	—	—	—
	2	30	26	25	22	20	25	—	30	—	—	31	29	9	30	24	24	138	23	—	27	23	22	—	—	—	—	—	45
	3	27	—	28	12	26	20	—	—	—	—	34	29	7	30	23	20	166	—	24	28	23	21	24	—	—	—	24	24
	4	28	23	29	16	27	24	—	28	—	—	25	31	1	28	21	18	109	19	22	22	23	20	24	—	90	24	24	35
	5	31	28	24	7	27	29	—	31	—	—	20	24	6	22	19	12	133	19	21	26	23	—	27	20	—	21	—	43
	6	27	23	22	—	14	29	—	24	—	—	24	—	8	20	15	20	112	21	21	17	23	28	27	20	—	21	—	38
	7	27	17	22	17	24	27	—	25	—	—	—	36	6	27	18	21	146	19	20	22	23	24	—	25	—	25	—	35
	8	26	20	30	18	29	26	6	24	—	—	20	30	5	28	18	21	120	21	21	23	23	18	—	25	—	25	—	32
Tuesday	1	35	—	38	24	39	38	—	31	—	—	30	32	25	39	—	23	129	22	28	25	23	—	—	—	30	18	—	16
	2	30	26	25	22	20	25	—	—	30	—	31	29	9	30	18	24	147	23	—	27	23	22	—	—	—	—	—	19
	3	27	—	28	12	26	20	—	—	30	—	34	29	4	30	24	20	142	—	24	28	23	21	24	—	—	—	24	19
	4	28	23	29	16	27	24	—	28	—	—	25	31	1	28	18	18	128	19	22	22	23	20	24	—	90	—	24	21
	5	31	28	24	7	27	29	—	31	—	20	—	24	6	22	26	12	164	19	21	26	23	—	27	20	—	21	—	21
	6	27	23	22	—	14	29	—	24	—	20	—	—	8	20	22	20	134	21	21	17	23	28	27	20	—	21	—	12
	7	27	17	22	17	24	27	24	25	—	—	24	36	4	27	15	21	134	19	20	22	23	24	—	25	—	25	—	8
	8	26	20	30	18	29	26	24	6	—	—	20	30	7	28	20	21	160	21	21	23	23	18	—	24	—	25	—	—
Wednesday	1	35	—	38	24	39	38	—	31	—	—	30	32	25	39	—	23	129	22	28	27	23	—	—	—	30	—	—	—
	2	30	26	25	22	20	25	—	30	—	—	31	29	9	30	11	24	137	23	—	27	23	22	—	—	—	—	—	45
	3	27	—	28	12	26	20	—	—	—	—	34	29	7	30	18	20	163	—	24	28	23	21	24	—	—	—	24	34
	4	28	23	29	16	27	24	—	28	—	—	25	31	1	28	14	18	106	19	22	22	23	20	24	—	90	—	24	35
	5	31	28	24	7	27	29	31	—	—	—	20	24	6	22	16	12	133	19	21	26	23	—	27	20	—	21	—	43
	6	27	23	22	—	14	29	31	—	—	24	—	—	8	20	17	20	115	21	21	8	23	28	27	20	—	21	—	38
	7	27	17	22	17	24	27	25	24	—	24	—	36	5	27	13	21	102	19	20	22	23	24	—	25	—	25	—	35
	8	26	20	30	18	29	26	6	24	—	—	20	30	5	28	15	21	119	21	21	23	23	18	—	25	—	25	—	32
Thursday	1	35	—	38	24	39	38	—	31	—	—	30	32	25	39	—	23	129	22	28	20	23	—	—	—	30	42	—	16
	2	30	26	25	22	20	25	—	—	30	—	31	29	9	30	23	24	149	23	—	27	23	22	—	—	—	—	—	18
	3	27	—	28	12	26	20	—	—	30	—	34	29	4	30	12	20	144	—	24	28	23	21	24	—	—	—	24	23
	4	28	23	29	16	27	24	—	28	—	—	25	31	1	28	23	18	125	19	22	22	23	20	24	—	90	—	24	18
	5	31	28	24	7	27	29	—	31	—	—	20	24	6	22	27	12	156	19	21	26	23	—	27	20	—	21	—	14
	6	27	23	22	—	14	29	24	—	—	—	24	—	8	20	22	20	128	21	21	16	23	28	27	20	—	21	—	16
	7	27	17	22	17	24	27	24	25	—	20	—	36	5	27	39	21	130	19	20	22	23	24	—	25	—	25	—	6
	8	26	20	30	18	29	26	6	24	—	20	—	30	7	28	22	21	161	21	21	23	23	18	—	25	—	25	—	—
Friday	1	35	—	38	24	39	38	—	31	—	—	30	32	25	39	—	23	129	22	28	27	23	—	—	—	30	10	—	19
	2	30	26	25	22	20	25	—	30	—	—	31	29	9	30	11	24	150	23	—	27	23	22	—	—	—	—	—	20
	3	27	—	28	12	26	20	28	—	—	—	34	29	6	30	22	20	167	—	24	28	23	21	24	—	—	—	24	16
	4	28	23	29	16	27	24	—	28	—	—	25	31	1	28	15	18	126	19	22	22	23	20	24	—	90	—	24	19
	5	31	28	24	7	27	29	—	31	—	—	20	24	6	22	10	12	163	19	21	26	23	—	27	20	—	21	—	16
	6	27	23	22	—	14	29	—	24	—	—	24	—	8	20	25	20	133	21	21	17	23	28	27	20	—	21	—	16
	7	27	17	22	17	24	27	—	25	—	—	20	36	5	27	17	21	174	19	20	22	23	24	—	25	—	25	—	10
	8	26	20	30	18	29	26	6	24	—	—	—	30	7	28	18	21	158	21	21	23	23	18	—	25	—	25	—	—

Room No.____ Used for_____

Dimensions__ × __ No. sq. ft.____ Standard number of pupil stations for this room_____ Actual number of pupil stations_____

Day	*Pupils in the Room at Various Periods*								*Total*
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	
Monday									
Tuesday									
Wednesday									
Thursday									
Friday									
Saturday									
Total									

Total possible rooms per week_____ Actual rooms per week_____

Per cent of room utilization_____

Total possible pupil stations per week_____ Actual pupil stations per week_____

Per cent of pupil-station utilization_____

FIG. 20. — Form for Studying the Utilization of One Room. (A blank such as this should be filled out for each room.)

Use of special rooms. — All investigations of the extent to which school buildings are used have found that the special rooms, such as the auditorium, the gymnasium, the science laboratories, the industrial arts shops, the home economics rooms, the cafeteria, the library, the commerce rooms, and the fine arts studios, are used to a much smaller

percentage of their capacity than are the regular classrooms for such subjects as mathematics, English, and history. A few school systems, however, are making a near-capacity use of the special rooms by providing a different type of school organization or by careful program making. Of course, such types of school organization and programs are more easy to operate if the building has been originally planned and equipped for them, and this will again suggest the necessity for foresight when a building is being planned. Below are listed some steps by which certain school officials have attempted to secure greater use of the special rooms.

One of the chief steps taken to secure a greater use of the school plant, particularly of the special rooms, is through the introduction of a new type of school organization such as that developed at Gary, Indiana, several years ago by former Superintendent William Wirt. During recent years that type of school organization has been variously known as the recitation-study-play plan, the platoon-school plan, or the duplicate-school plan. Its chief feature is that it makes complete use of the school plant, or of most of it, during every hour of the school day. Under this world-famous organization which Superintendent Wirt wrought at Gary, the pupils of a school are divided into three groups or platoons. While one of these groups or platoons is engaged in *study* activities in the libraries or other study rooms, at the same hour another group or platoon is engaged in *recitations* and the third group or platoon is engaged in *play activities*. During the next class period the activity for each group is changed; for example, the recitation group becomes the play group; the play group, the study group; and the study group, the recitation group. Thus, throughout the school day, the three groups regularly rotate their activities from one class period to the next. By this plan Gary is enabled to keep the special rooms and other special facilities, such as auditoriums, gymnasiums, playgrounds, libraries, studios, museums, laboratories, and shops, in full use throughout the school day. The Gary plan, or a

modification of it, is now found in successful operation in hundreds of school buildings in every state.

Other ways by which the special rooms may be used to a greater extent are: by placing tablet arms on some of the chairs in the auditorium so that it may be used for recitations; by using part of the cafeteria as a recitation room, a study room, or as an overflow room for the library; by staggering the lunch period; by making the stage of the auditorium large enough to be used as a gymnasium; by erecting a combination gymnasium and auditorium; and by designing or arranging science laboratories, particularly in the smaller school systems, so that they can be used for class meetings in such subjects as English, the social sciences, and mathematics. In small schools, rather than to have a special room for each science, it is often practicable to have one room and equipment for several sciences, such as physics, chemistry, and biology.

In subjects requiring special and expensive equipment, such as industrial arts, home economics, commerce, music and art, rather than to offer these subjects in every school of the school system, it is often practicable for all students who desire such subjects to go to one or a few central places for them. Adoption of this plan would make it easier to use the special rooms and their equipment to a wider extent, and would enable the principal of the school, especially in the small school systems, to schedule classes which do not have small pupil-teacher ratios.

COMMUNITY USE OF BUILDINGS [1]

Evolution of community use. — In the early days we were primarily an agricultural people and lived in the open country and in small towns. For protection, subsistence, education, recreation, and other conveniences and benefits the people found it necessary to co-operate. A well-developed neighborhood spirit was one of the chief results of the necessity

[1] Community use is sometimes called collateral use; it is called, at other times, auxiliary use.

for co-operation. As an organized expression of this neighborhood spirit, community centers grew up, and these early selected the schoolhouse as the most practicable meeting place. The schoolhouse was the most practicable rendezvous because it was public property; moreover, the influence of the school upon community life was potent and widespread because almost every home had at least one representative in school either as a pupil or as an employee; still more, the school was non-partisan, non-sectarian, and otherwise non-exclusive. In the schoolhouse the people of the community met to deliberate upon and to decide matters of government, to worship, and to attend and participate in socials, "spelling bees," debates, musicales, and literary exercises. In those days it could be truly said that the school was the "community capitol" and the center of democracy.

The early conditions do not, however, exist today, nor have they existed for several years. During the past century we have been rapidly becoming an industrial nation and the centralization of population in the cities has grown apace. Coincident with our industrialization and the growth of the cities have come more conveniences and comforts of life; these conveniences and comforts are blessings. On the other hand, our industrialization and the growth of cities have tended to make us forget the values of community life and in consequence to permit our neighborhood centers, which early flourished in the schools, to decay. Eleanor T. Glueck [1] writes as follows regarding the problems which the communities of modern times are facing:

> Social engineers are greatly concerned in the need for preserving the values which are inherent in neighborhood life — an informed and well-directed public opinion, a sense of civic responsibility, a strong local tradition, a regard for the opinions, rights, and privileges of others, and most important of all, a spirit of cooperation for mutual welfare. Industrial specialization, though bringing greater comfort and ease of life,

[1] *The Community Use of Schools*, p. 1. Copyright by The Williams and Wilkins Company.

is severing the close bonds of friendship and mutual understanding, and is resulting in the disintegration of the neighborhood spirit. The pattern of the social fabric has grown increasingly complex and we are today faced with resulting problems that cry for solution, -- the divisive barriers of race, of religion, of politics, of differences in social and economic strata. The great mobility of the population; the restlessness of "modern youth" in this age of "jazz" and "petting parties"; the overcommercialization of recreation cheapened by an uncultivated public taste; a growing laxity in respect for law and morals; the undirected energies of the great majority of people who grope for self-expression through vicarious channels, some of the more obvious manifestations of which are drunkenness, drug addiction, delinquency, and low ethical and moral standards; and most symptomatic of all a weakened sense of civic responsibility manifest by laxity in voting; and a negligent attitude toward corruption in high places, all offer a threatening challenge to the social engineer.

Within the last three decades, however, there has been a well-defined movement toward making the school the center of community life as it was in early days; as a result of the business depression and the large amount of unemployment, this movement has been greatly accelerated since 1929. Although the number of school buildings which are now used by the community may not be proportionately as large as in early days, the number of community activities carried on in the present-day buildings is much larger than formerly; moreover, these activities are better organized than formerly. Everywhere today the school buildings are being opened for the use of the general public during the evenings, and at other times when the work of the regular pupils will not be hindered. Everywhere adult education is being emphasized, because it is realized that complete education cannot be secured in the eight, twelve, or sixteen years of the school. In the present national emergency school plants are being widely used for the training of non-combatants, and this use is likely to be perpetuated in a program of vocational training after the emergency has passed. Everywhere the large waste which results from using school plants only five or six hours a day, five days a week, and eight, nine, or ten months during the year, and permitting them to remain idle the remainder

of the time, is being pointed out. Progressive school officials and employees are not only doing everything possible to encourage the use of school buildings and playgrounds during vacations and after school, but are taking the lead in organizing and sponsoring such activities. Schools which do not have a program of adult education in some degree of development are almost as extinct as the dodo.

Types of community use. — Any survey of the community use of school buildings will show that a great number of associations, clubs, societies, and other organizations are using the buildings. In many of the buildings, especially those of the cities, it is common to find many different organizations holding regular or occasional meetings. Some of the organizations which make frequent use of school buildings are: Parent-Teacher Associations, Mothers' Clubs, Red Cross, Community Clubs, People's Forums, Social-Service Federations, Welfare Associations, Health Organizations, Future Farmers of America, Farm Bureaus, Farmers' Institutes, Granges, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Chambers of Commerce, Americanization Leagues, Civic Societies, Men's Clubs, Young Men's Christian Associations, Young Women's Christian Associations, Lyceums, Teachers' Clubs, Service Clubs such as Rotary and Kiwanis, Churches, High School Clubs and Associations, and Library Committees. Four types of community use are being made of school buildings. It should be noted, however, that all four types may be found in one school center. The four types are: [1]

1. *Use by various local groups at whatever time they desire, provided the use does not interfere with the regular activities of the school.* Such use is granted upon application to, and with the consent of, the school authorities. This is by far the most common type of use. Sometimes the buildings are granted free, and *not* free at other times, depending upon the type of use, the finances of the school system, and local policy.

2. *Use for activities which are initiated and supervised by the school authorities, or in a few instances by recreation or park boards.* Many of the larger school

[1] Epitomized from Eleanor T. Glueck's *The Community Use of Schools*, pp. 142–145. Copyright by The Williams and Wilkins Company.

systems have established a special department for the supervision of such activities or have delegated the work to a department having other functions. In this type of use, leaders for community activities are frequently furnished, and the expense of heat, light, and janitor service is usually defrayed by the public.

3. *Use by pupils of the day schools and by organizations closely affiliated with the day schools, such as parent-teacher associations.* For example, a large percentage of the schools are extending their extracurricular activities so that the buildings are being used in the evenings by the pupils for such activities as athletic contests, debates, lectures, plays, musicales, and entertainments of various kinds. These activities are bringing the adults as well as the pupils to the schoolhouse.

4. *Use by organizations in which there is a total self-government and self-support of the activities.*

Statutes and court decisions governing community use. — Although the trend is unquestionably toward more liberal use of school property, the statutes and court decisions of the various states still express widely different views regarding the legality and advisability of such use; this difference is seen especially in court decisions. According to one line of court decisions, the use of school property for non-school purposes is prohibited, in the absence of specific statutory permission, no matter what the nature of the use may be. According to another line of decisions, which in the main are more recent and decidedly in the majority, the use of school property for non-school purposes is permitted, provided it does not interfere with school use. In his nation-wide study of the law pertaining to community use of school property H. H. Punke found the following: [1]

1. The courts are rather sharply divided on the question of whether, in the absence of specific statutory permission, public-school property can be used for non-school purposes.
   a. The use of such property for religious meetings has been prohibited in Connecticut, Kansas, Missouri, and Pennsylvania, but such use has been permitted in Illinois, Iowa, and Tennessee.
   b. The use of public-school property for private schools has been pro-

[1] "Collateral Uses of Public-School Property," *Educational Law and Administration* (January, 1937), Vol. V, pp. 14–15.

hibited in Illinois, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, and its use for lyceums has been prohibited in Pennsylvania. In Vermont, however, the use of such property for private schools has been permitted, and in Rhode Island the use of a public-school building for the giving of private music lessons has been permitted.

c. In Wisconsin public-school property could not be used for the meetings of the Sons of Temperance, while in Arkansas and Illinois the use of such property for a lodgeroom has been permitted.

d. Social dancing in public-school buildings has been prohibited in Utah, but permitted in California and Nebraska. Under recent statutes authorizing "recreational activities," it has been permitted in Utah. In Montana a high-school gymnasium could be rented for public dances, under a statute permitting that it be rented for public entertainment.

e. The use of school property for profit, by private commercial enterprises, has been before the courts in Louisiana and Wisconsin and prohibited in both instances. However, the use of such property by a regiment of the National Guard has been permitted in Texas, and its use to sell lunches to teachers and pupils has been permitted in Louisiana.

2. Several states have enacted statutes specifically authorizing non-school uses of public-school property. Where the constitutionality of such statutes has been attacked it has been upheld.

3. It might be noted here that in recent years there has been a demand for wider use of the school plant than in earlier times. In some states this demand has been reflected in more liberal rulings by the courts and in some states by specific legislation authorizing wider use of school property.

Rules governing school-property use. — Every board of education, whether of a large or of a small school system, should adopt a set of rules and regulations which it will follow in the letting of school property for community use. Such rules and regulations should prescribe the method of securing permission to use the property; the conditions of use; and the fees, if any, which must be paid for the use. It would be well also to have an application blank which persons and organizations seeking the use of property should fill out; the application blank of the Minneapolis schools is reproduced in Fig. 21, since it suggests what such a blank should contain.

Permit No. _____

1. Application on behalf of _____ an
(Name of organization or individual)
association having _____ members, for use of _____
(State number)
_____ of _____ School
(Specify portion of building or grounds)
2. Purpose of use _____
(Describe fully, stating if there will be dancing)
3. (*a*) For single meetings:
On _____ the _____ day of _____ hours: _____ to _____
(Day of week) (Day) (Month)
(*b*) For series meetings:
Days _____
(For "blanket" application state days of regular meetings)
Beginning _____ ending _____ hours: _____ to _____
(Date of first of series) (Date of last of series)
4. Permission to bring into building or onto grounds _____
(Equipment or apparatus)
5. Admission charge of _____ for adults, and _____ for children to be made, the proceeds to be devoted to _____
6. Rental charge (if any) will be made in accordance with the schedule printed in "Rules Governing Use of School Plant."
7. The undersigned who is to be in charge of the exercises is 21 years of age or over. He agrees that he will be responsible to the Board of Education for the use and care of the school property. He further agrees that the character of entertainment will conform with that stated in the application, and that he will make the required report on the use of the building. He understands that the Engineer cannot permit the use of the building except upon presentation of an official permit granted by the Board of Education.

Real signature	Address	Telephone

8. The undersigned hereby agree that this application is made subject to the rules of the Board of Education and agree for themselves and all others for whom this application is made that the same are accepted and will be observed.

Real signatures	Addresses	Telephones

9. Approved _____ _____ 194__
(Principal) (Date)
Approved _____ _____ 194__
(Superintendent) (Date)
Approved _____ _____ 194__
(Department Head) (Date)

FIG. 21. — Application Blank for the Use of School Building.

A set of rules and regulations and an application blank reduce to routine much of the work of letting school property, and give greater assurance that all groups of the community will be treated alike. When they do not have such guides school officials are likely to be accused of partiality and high handedness, and friction will be engendered. Because it suggests what a set of rules and regulations governing the community use of school buildings should contain, the set of Jackson, Michigan, is reproduced herewith:

RULES GOVERNING THE USE OF ROOMS IN SCHOOL BUILDINGS IN JACKSON, MICHIGAN

1. The school auditoriums, gymnasiums and other rooms are designed primarily for school purposes and may be so used without charge for meetings of pupils, meetings for the benefit of teachers, meetings and entertainments by teachers' clubs, alumni associations, parent-teachers' associations and other organizations affiliated directly with the schools and entertainments for the benefit of the schools given by student organizations recognized by the school authorities.

Such meetings shall have precedence over all others, and may be held by arrangement with the principal of the building, who shall assume responsibility therefor and either be present in person or represented by responsible teachers.

2. The use of school rooms by the public is permitted for meetings of an educational, patriotic, philanthropic, civic, musical or social nature, intended to promote the public welfare and not conflicting with the aforementioned school uses or the regular work of the school.

3. For public meetings held on the evenings of days when school sessions have been held, the following rates shall prevail for the use of auditoriums or gymnasiums from November 1 to May 1. Eighty per cent of these rates shall be paid for the remainder of the year.

	When the highest admission fee is			
	25¢ or less, or when a collection is taken	*26¢ to 50¢*	*Above 50¢*	*When no admission is charged and no collection taken*
Elementary School Classroom	$ 2.00	$ 3.00	$ 4.00	$ 2.00
Elementary School Auditorium	5.00	7.50	10.00	5.00
East Intermediate "	15.00	22.50	30.00	7.50
West Intermediate "	20.00	30.00	40.00	10.00
High School "	40.00	60.00	80.00	20.00

For daytime use or evening rehearsals, the charge shall be one-half the regular rate for evening use. For use of facilities on week days when school

has not been in session, the above rates shall be increased by 40 per cent from November 1 to May 1 and by 20 per cent for the remainder of the year.

Locker rooms shall not be opened before 6:30 P.M. for evening games, and the playing time shall be so arranged that the building can be closed not later than 11:00 P.M.

Proper supervision in locker rooms, satisfactory to the superintendent of schools, or his representative, shall be provided at their own expense by those engaging the use of school gymnasiums, and in case of any damage to school property by those engaging the facilities, the cost of necessary repairs shall be paid to the School District before further use of school facilities shall be granted to the persons or organization responsible for said damage. No meetings shall be held until the designated school authority has received satisfactory assurance that proper supervision will be provided.

4. An organization engaging an auditorium or gymnasium for a regular series of more than two meetings shall be entitled to a reduction from the total charge for the season of five per cent for each meeting held, providing that the total reduction shall not exceed forty per cent.

The rate for use of pools or gymnasiums for recreational purposes and practice purposes shall be set at $1.00 per period for the Elementary, $2.00 per period for the Intermediate and at $5.00 per period for the High School. For this purpose, a pool period shall be one hour, or fraction thereof, and a gymnasium period two hours, or fraction thereof.

5. Application for public use of school accommodations shall be made in duplicate on regular forms secured at the office of the Board of Education and filed, **with the required fee, if any, at least three days before the proposed date of meeting.**

6. The application will be signed by two responsible citizens, who shall agree thereby to be personally responsible for any damage to property other than ordinary wear and tear due to such occupancy, and for the strict observance of these rules and regulations.

7. Application shall be acted upon by the superintendent of schools, or his representative, who may require any information of applicants, may reject any application and may cancel any permit previously issued.

8. When permission is granted, the superintendent of buildings and grounds shall be notified, and he shall see that the room is prepared for occupancy and that a school custodian is present throughout the time of the meeting and for at least one-half hour before the meeting is scheduled to begin; said custodian to open and close the building, have charge of heating, lighting and ventilating the parts used and assist as he may be able in preserving order on the school premises and preventing damage to school property.

9. **The school buildings may not be used for private or individual gain.**

10. Auditoriums may be used for political meetings by all recognized political parties without distinction, on payment of fee **specified in second column of figures above.**

11. Day meetings shall close by 5:30 P.M., evening meetings by 11:00 P.M.

12. No permit shall be granted to occupy school buildings where the average attendance expected is under twenty; nor auditoriums unless the attendance expected equals at least two-thirds their normal seating capacity, nor shall any permit be granted for the use of buildings on Sundays or holidays, except by permission of the Board of Education.

13. **The use of tobacco upon school premises is strictly prohibited.**

14. Whenever an auditorium or other room is used, sufficient supervision, including police attendance, if necessary, shall be provided by those to whom the accommodation is granted to insure good order, the protection of property, the observance of these rules and regulations, and the prevention of people wandering over the building or being on the school premises elsewhere than in the rooms engaged and their direct approaches.

15. Gymnasiums and rooms other than auditoriums may be used by the general public only under the direct management of persons qualified to use and care for any equipment or apparatus contained therein; if the auditoriums are engaged and stage scenery is used, competent help to handle same shall be provided by those to whom the accommodation is granted.

Planning buildings for community use. — All straws point to a continued increase in leisure time and to a growing need for adult-education programs. Community use of school buildings will, therefore, continue to develop, and school officials must plan for it more than they have in the past. They must plan for it especially when they are erecting new buildings and making additions to old ones. Modern buildings should be planned in such a manner that they can be used not only for the regular day school but also for community activities.

Those parts of the building which are used for community activities should be located, if at all possible, on the first floor. These parts would include first of all the gymnasium, the auditorium, and the library; other parts of the building

which are also frequently used by the community are the cafeteria, the home economics laboratory, the agriculture department, and the industrial arts shops. All these parts should be provided, if possible, with both outside and inside entrances, and provisions should be made for closing them from the remainder of the building when deemed desirable.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What, if any, provisions do the laws of your state make for the community use of school property? What court decisions, if any, are there in your state on the subject?

2. For which of the following purposes, if any, should school property be used, and under what conditions: fraternal organizations, political meetings, moving-picture shows, Red Cross, churches, parent-teacher associations, public lectures, dancing, and chamber of commerce? Explain your views.

3. What organizations should be required to pay a fee for the use of school property? Why? On what basis should the amount of the fee be determined?

4. How may the danger of community friction developing over the granting of the use of school property be decreased?

5. Would it be practicable to keep the public schools open during the whole year as is now the practice in many colleges and universities? Why or why not?

6. Would it be practicable to run two "shifts" of pupils and employees in each building? Why or why not?

7. How may the special rooms of a school building be used to nearer their capacity?

8. Account for the fact that high school buildings are less frequently used at capacity or near capacity than are elementary school buildings. Why is it more difficult to use small high school buildings at capacity or near capacity than large high school buildings?

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Chapter XII

OPERATION OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

SCOPE OF PLANT OPERATION

Keeping the school plant open and ready for use requires the services of a janitorial personnel and the furnishing of certain supplies. For these purposes the typical school system spends annually approximately 10 per cent of its current funds. The largest expenditures for janitorial supplies are those for fuel, electric current, and water; smaller expenditures are made for such supplies as sweeping compounds, soap, towels, toilet supplies, disinfectants, oil, brooms, brushes, and mops. Since the administration of all types of school supplies will be discussed in Chapter XVI, janitorial supplies need not be discussed here. The present chapter will, therefore, be entirely devoted to the administration of the janitorial personnel.

IMPORTANCE OF THE SCHOOL JANITOR

Need for professionalization of the position. — Although progress has not been entirely lacking in it, the development of school-janitorial service has not kept pace with the development of other phases of schoolwork. During recent decades there has been a phenomenal improvement in the quality of school buildings, equipment, and supplies. Moreover, the qualifications of teachers, supervisors, administrators, and of almost all other school employees have advanced by leaps and bounds. The school janitorship, on the contrary, has been largely permitted to maintain its original and lowly status.

As in former years, the position is frequently given to a pauper, to an aged person, to a cripple, to a "politician," to a "politician's friend," or to some other type of incompetent person.

The school janitor is — at least, he should be — an important member of the school personnel, and everywhere the position should be professionalized. There is no valid reason why the school janitor should not have some of the qualifications of teachers. The giving of the school janitorship to persons with "strong backs and weak minds," which has been widely the practice, can no longer be justified — indeed, that practice was never justified. It would be a great boon to education if all communities would place their school-janitorial service on the same plane of efficiency that cities, such as Minneapolis, have placed theirs. In the following paragraphs the chief reasons for the importance of the janitor are discussed:

Fivefold function of the school janitor. — In the first place, the janitor is important because, acting under the general supervision of the principal of the school, he is the custodian [1] and the user of valuable property. He has charge of a building which in many instances cost several hundred thousand, or several million, dollars. He makes, or should make, many repairs on the building and equipment. He has immediate control of much of the equipment of the building, and often this equipment is expensive; if not properly used, it may be irreparably damaged.

Moreover, the school building of today is a community center. It is being used more than six hours per day, more than five days per week, and more than seven, eight, or nine months per year. It is being used after school hours; it is being used on Saturdays and Sundays and during the summer vacation; it is the community meeting place. This community use of school buildings makes the position of school janitor more important than ever. In addition to protecting school

[1] Because it implies greater dignity, many school systems have adopted the term "custodian" rather than janitor.

property from vandalism during community use, the janitor is expected to help in the elimination of any rowdyism during such use; many communities give him the power to arrest rowdies appearing on school premises. Unlike his predecessors, the modern school janitor is more than a servant of the pupils; he is a servant of the whole community.

In the second place, the janitor is responsible for the use of hundreds, or thousands, of dollars' worth of supplies; often, too, he helps to select the supplies which he uses, and the performance of this function requires good judgment. He uses or supervises the use of fuel, electric current, water, and cleaning compounds, and money must be spent for all these items. In a large school building an inefficient janitor can easily waste his salary by an extravagant or a wrong use of supplies; an efficient janitor, on the other hand, can easily save his salary by an economical use of supplies. The modern school janitor must be able to do more than shovel coal into the furnace and sweep the floors periodically.

In the third place, the janitor largely determines the house keeping standards of the school building. He is to the school what the housekeeper is to the home. An efficient school janitor will keep his building spick and span. Marks on the wall or dirt and paper on the premises will challenge his pride. He will believe that "cleanliness is next to godliness," and he will desire to do everything possible to put this precept into practice. That is the proper reaction, because children will then become imbued with the spirit of tidiness and cleanliness, and will co-operate with the janitor in keeping the school premises spick and span. Moreover, it is reasonable to suppose that if habits of cleanliness and tidiness are learned in school by the pupils they will carry over to, and become a part of, after-school life. On the other hand, failure to keep the school premises clean and tidy demoralizes the development of good habits on the part of pupils. In all efforts to improve the race it should be kept in mind that euthenics is the handmaid of eugenics.

In the fourth place, the janitor has the responsibility for keeping the school building in such condition that the health and safety of pupils and teachers will not be placed in jeopardy. No school employee — unless it be the principal — has a greater responsibility for the comfort, the health, and the safety of the pupils and employees than the janitor. The janitor is responsible for keeping the building at a uniform and otherwise proper temperature; he provides an ample and a pure supply of drinking water; he looks after the ventilation of the building; and he is responsible for removing fire, ice, and other hazards. Needless to say, the janitor cannot keep the school building as it should be unless he knows many fundamental facts about hygiene; for example, he must know the principles of air moisture, ventilation, and heating; the science and the art of cleaning; the effects of dust on the human system and the evils of the feather duster; and the dangers inherent in the common drinking cup.

Finally, and in the fifth place, the school janitor exercises a great moral and educational influence in the school. He exerts this influence particularly with the boys.[1] At recess and at other school intermissions the boys hobnob with him. They often become better acquainted with him than they do with the principal and the teachers. They take many questions to him for discussion, advice, and solution. These considerations make it necessary for the janitor to be a person of clean mind and body, to have more than average intelligence, and to possess a large amount of common sense. Like the teachers and the principal of the school he must envisage worthy citizens in the making and do his part to accomplish that fundamental aim of the school.

Moreover, the typical school janitor has lived in the local community all his life, or at least for many years, and, as a result, he is well acquainted with the people of the community.

[1] In large schools, especially high schools, which employ several janitors, at least one janitress should be employed for the supervision of girls' toilets and other appropriate duties.

This acquaintance gives him considerable influence — political, social, and otherwise. Notwithstanding the incongruity of such a state of affairs, his opposition to the superintendent, to a principal, or to a teacher often results in the dismissal of that person. Still more, the school janitor is a disseminator of information concerning the school; he sees much, hears much, and often says much. He can do much to mold public opinion on school matters, and he can mold it favorably or unfavorably. In brief, he is an influential public-relations agent.

SELECTION OF SCHOOL JANITORS

Importance of proper selection. — The place at which to begin in attempting to improve the school-janitorial service is with the janitorial personnel, and this requires better methods of selection. School janitors should be selected on a more rational basis than most school systems have yet adopted. Some of the circumspection used today in the selection of teachers, supervisors, administrators, and other school employees should be exercised in the selection of janitors.

Methods of selection. — In a recent questionnaire study of the methods of selecting school janitors in cities of more than 50,000 population S. D. Benbow found that archaic methods are still in use.[1] Only a small percentage make use of either mental or physical examinations. A comparison of the data of Benbow's investigation with those of J. A. Garber's [2] study made fifteen years earlier show that only small improvement in methods of selection had been made. The methods of selection which Benbow found in use are shown in Table VI.

Most authorities agree that school janitors should be required to undergo an examination — physical and mental

[1] "How Janitors Get Their Jobs," *American School Board Journal* (September, 1937), Vol. XCV, pp. 31–32, 100.

[2] "The School Janitor," *U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin*, 1922, No. 24, p. 7.

TABLE VI. — METHODS OF SELECTING SCHOOL JANITORS IN CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES

Selective Factor	*141 Cities 50,000 Population and Over*	*71 Cities 50,000 to 100,000 Population*	*43 Cities 100,000 to 250,000 Population*	*27 Cities 250,000 Population and Over*
1. Personal Interview	81.6%	84.5%	79.1%	77.8%
2. U.S. Citizenship	66.7	63.4	60.5	85.2
3. Application Blank	63.8	59.2	67.4	70.4
4. Evaluation of Previous Experience	56.7	56.3	55.8	59.3
5. Age Limits	51.8	52.1	48.8	55.6
6. Personal-Appearance Rating	51.8	46.5	55.8	59.3
7. Local Minimum Residence	48.9	47.9	41.9	63.0
8. Written Reports from Character References	47.5	46.5	44.2	55.6
9. Written Reports from Previous Employers	38.3	39.4	30.2	48.1
10. Marital Status	33.3	33.8	32.6	33.3
11. Other Factors	33.3	32.4	34.9	33.3
12. Medical Examination by School Physician	29.8	31.0	27.9	29.6
13. Oral Examination on Janitorial Work	27.7	26.8	27.9	29.6
14. Civil Service Examination	25.5	19.7	30.2	33.3
15. Formal Schooling	22.0	15.5	30.2	25.9
16. Medical Examination by Applicant's Physician	12.8	12.7	9.3	18.5
17. Written Examination on Janitorial Work	12.1	14.1	4.7	18.5
18. Physical-Agility Test	9.9	8.5	2.3	25.9
19. Intelligence Test	8.5	5.6	4.7	22.2

— before they are employed, and they agree that such examination should be required by state law.[1] They believe that the civil service examination may be used to good advantage, provided the questions are carefully selected, and provided the answers are critically read by the examiner. Unfortunately, however, such examinations for school janitors are usually given by persons who are not school officials or employees; the questions are usually selected and the answers

[1] Janitors and all other non-instructional employees should be required to possess state certificates the same as instructional employees are now required to possess them.

marked by a civil service commission upon which there is no representative of the schools. The examinations may be further criticized because they are usually the same for all kinds of janitors; whether the janitors are to be employed in a public comfort station or in a school building does not seem to interest the civil service commission. There would be advantages in having a special examination for school janitors in view of the fact that the school janitorship is the most important of all janitorships, and in view of the fact that the duties are different from those of other types of janitorships.

Any examination for a school janitorship should test the candidate's *ability to do* as well as his knowledge of facts. Moreover, it should be amply difficult. It should permit only the well-qualified persons to pass. Every examination should have an oral as well as a written part in order that the personality of the candidate may be ascertained. C. E. Reeves and H. S. Ganders affirm that an examination for school janitors should consist of at least the following divisions: [1]

1. *School health and sanitation.* There is a close relationship existing between some phases of heating, ventilating, and cleaning work and the health of the children.

2. *Methods of work.* This should include the work of heating, ventilation, cleaning, and special work. The real knowledge of efficient and economic methods and procedures will be shown in this examination if it is a good one.

3. *Knowledge of the mechanical equipment and principles of operation and effectiveness.* This should include questions dealing with such building equipment as furnaces, boilers, heating systems, ventilating systems, motors, pumps, cleaning systems, principles of heating, ventilating, cleaning, and the like.

4. *A complete physical examination.* This examination should be given preferably by the school physician. No candidate in poor health or with serious physical defects should be eligible for appointment.

It is generally conceded that Minneapolis has developed as efficient a plan of janitorial service as any school system;

[1] *School Building Management*, pp. 12–13. Copyright by Teachers College, Columbia University.

the late George F. Womrath, assistant superintendent of schools there for many years, should be given the chief credit for this accomplishment. In that city, before a person may secure a position on the school-janitorial staff, he must undergo a period of apprenticeship under an experienced and trained school janitor; moreover, he must pass an examination before he is eligible for a position. A concept of the rigidity of the training and of the examination may be secured from the fact that only 30 per cent of the persons who take the training and the examination successfully master or pass them. In Minneapolis all school janitors are required to meet the following qualifications which might well be written into the rules and regulations of boards of education everywhere: [1]

SECTION I. JANITORIAL QUALIFICATIONS

No person shall be eligible for appointment on the janitorial-engineering force of the Minneapolis public schools unless he or she

a. Shall be able-bodied and of good character.
b. Shall be able to read, write, and speak the English language.
c. Shall be clean and neat in appearance.
d. Shall not be addicted to the use of intoxicating liquors or tobacco.
e. Shall be qualified to perform in a reasonably proficient manner the duties of the position he or she may be employed to fill.
f. Shall not be under the age of twenty-one years nor over the age of forty-five years.
g. Shall be a citizen of the United States, and a resident of Minneapolis.
h. Shall agree to devote his or her entire time within the hours of his or her employment to the discharge of the duties assigned to him or her.

SECTION II. SPECIAL QUALIFICATIONS

All male applicants for positions in the engineering division of the janitorial-engineering service must possess the following qualifications:

a. Must have sufficient knowledge and experience in the use, operating, and care of the mechanical equipment used for the heating, ventilating, lighting and operation of a school building to insure the board of education against damage to school property arising from the use or misuse by him of such mechanical equipment.
b. Must hold either a chief engineer's license, a first-class engineer's li-

[1] *Rules and Regulations for Janitorial Service in the Minneapolis Public Schools*, Article 12, Sections I and II.

cense for handling steam boilers and engines in accordance with requirements of the position held and as determined by the rules of the State Boiler Inspector's Department.

c. Must be reasonably proficient in the use of fuel and of simple mechanical tools.

One of the greatest handicaps to school-janitorial service today is the practice in many school systems of permitting the janitors to be selected by the board of education or by a committee of the board. In the rural and village communities, school boards often select the janitors without consulting the superintendents of schools; school board selection is practiced less frequently in the city systems. The better-organized school systems, on the contrary, are giving to the superintendent of schools, to the business manager of schools, to the supervisor of janitors, or to the superintendent of buildings and grounds the responsibility of selecting the janitors. These better methods of selection should become universal, and making them universal would probably be the greatest single step which could be taken in attempts at improving school-janitorial service.

In school systems which use janitorial examinations — a plan which should be adopted everywhere — the practice followed by Rochester, New York, in selecting its janitors from the qualified list would seem to be worth serious consideration. In that school system, when a janitorial vacancy occurs, the names of the three candidates with the highest marks on the civil service examination are submitted to the principal of the school in which the vacancy exists. If the principal's selection is approved by the superintendent of school buildings, recommendation for his appointment is made forthwith to the board of education. When the principal and superintendent of school buildings have different selections, the selection of each is submitted to the board of education, which chooses from one of the two names submitted.[1]

[1] It would seem better to have any such conflict reconciled by the superintendent of schools, who should make his recommendation to the board of education.

Probationary appointment. — All new janitors should be appointed for a probationary period extending from two to six months. During this trial period their efficiency should be carefully observed, and those employees who prove themselves to be efficient should be placed on the permanent staff, and those who prove themselves to be inefficient should be rejected permanently or should be required to secure more training. Many school systems are already following the practice just recommended and all should adopt it.

Contractual versus non-contractual service. — Two plans of securing school janitorial service are being used. These plans are: (1) the *contractual* plan and (2) the *non-contractual*, or direct-employment, plan. In the contractual plan, which is frequently used in the larger cities, the board of education makes a contract with a certain individual to furnish all the janitorial personnel and all the janitorial supplies for a certain building; this individual employs such assistants as he needs to care for the building and pays them. In the non-contractual plan, which is by far the most commonly used plan, the board of education directly employs all janitors and pays them, and furnishes all the janitorial supplies.

Many school systems which have tried the contractual plan have returned to the non-contractual plan. Although they may be required to pay more for non-contractual service, they usually secure a more efficient type of service than they are able to secure under the contractual plan. Under the contractual plan, the janitor who receives the contract is naturally interested in as large profits as possible, and is under constant temptation to use janitorial supplies sparingly and to employ as few and as cheap assistants as possible.

PREPARATION OF SCHOOL JANITORS

Preparation in larger systems. — In only a few school systems — these few being found in the larger cities — is any attention now being given to the preparation of the janitor either before he enters service or after he enters it. As has

already been indicated, Minneapolis is doing more in this matter than any other school system. In Minneapolis, before the prospective janitor may secure an appointment, he must undergo a period of apprenticeship under a skilled school janitor, and even after he secures an appointment he is required to attend a janitorial school one evening each month until he has completed a prescribed curriculum. Figure 22 is an organization chart of the Minneapolis janitorial school which will give the reader a better acquaintance with the nature and the extent of the school. That the fame of the school is not confined to Minneapolis is proved by the fact that it now enrolls among its students janitors and prospective janitors from several other communities. Moreover, the high standards which Minneapolis has established for persons entering her janitorial service, and the worth of the school, are demonstrated by the fact that many of the school janitors of that city are college graduates.

The instruction given in the Minneapolis janitorial school deals with practical subjects and is given by specialists in the various phases of janitorial work. The chief subjects included in the curriculum are the following: [1]

1. Personal appearance of the janitor.
2. Janitors' tools and care of tools.
3. Materials used in cleaning.
4. Treating and preserving floors.
5. Maintaining and cleaning floors.
6. Cleaning and dusting walls, woodwork, and furniture.
7. Cleaning vitreous china, enamel surfaces, and metal surfaces.
8. Cleaning glass.
9. Vacation cleaning.
10. Etiquette of the United States flag.
11. Janitorial-engineering employees' salary data.
12. Precautions as to the operation of heating and ventilating equipment.
13. Miscellaneous items, such as water traps, snow shoveling, and working hours.

[1] For an elaboration of these subjects see *Rules and Regulations for Janitorial-Engineering Service in the Minneapolis Public Schools.*

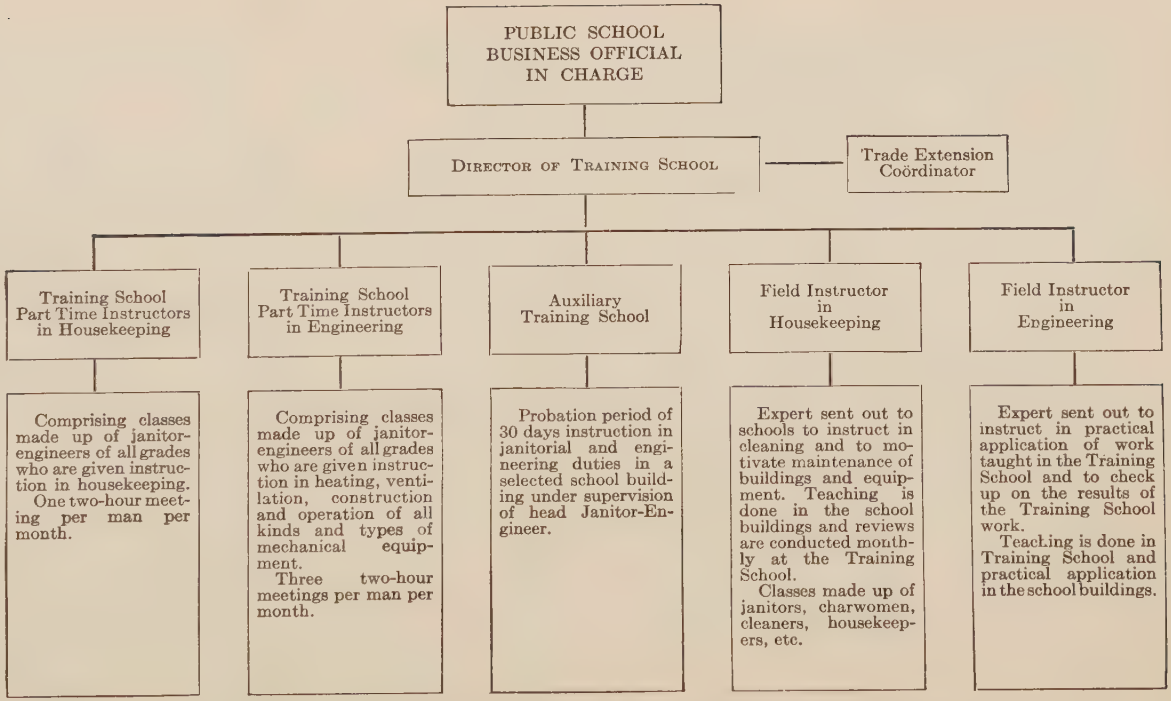


Fig. 22. — Organization Chart of the Janitorial School of Minneapolis.
(From the author's *The Business Administration of a School System*, p. 263.)

Of the aforementioned topics, those from 1 to 9, inclusive, are presented to the students as lectures and demonstrations. Many parts of the work are illustrated by motion pictures and stereopticon views. The work is made still more practical and interesting by having the various machines, tools, and other supplies and equipment immediately at hand, and the students are given supervised practice in the use of these supplies and equipment. In every way possible the students practice the Pestalozzian precept, namely, that we "learn to do by doing."

Of course, only the larger school systems can practicably organize such a janitorial school as have Minneapolis and a few other cities.[1] Moreover, it is apparent that the raising of the level of efficiency of the janitorial service to that attained by Minneapolis cannot be accomplished overnight or by radical steps; "Aladdin's lamp" will not work here. Minneapolis has spent several years in attaining the high efficiency in her school-janitorial service for which she is now noted.

Preparation in smaller systems. — In the smaller school systems, although a janitorial school cannot usually be practicably organized, the principal and the superintendent of schools can do much to increase the competence of the janitors. Frequently they can make suggestions orally or in writing on how some part of the service can be improved or how a particular task can be performed more economically or efficiently. Occasionally they will be able to suggest helpful reading for janitors; a few helpful reading items for that purpose are listed in the Selected References at the close of this chapter.

In school systems having a fairly large number of janitors the janitors might be encouraged to organize an association that would meet, say, once each month for the discussion of their work and other common problems. In county systems of

[1] Several colleges and universities, and a few state departments of education, now offer short courses for janitors; most of these are offered during the summer months when janitors in service can attend them. These developments now make janitorial training available to the small school systems as well as to the large ones.

schools all the janitors in a county or in adjoining counties might be brought together for a day or two of institute work each year. It would be excellent for the school-janitorial service if some of the spirit of the movement for the training of teachers in service could carry over to the janitorial personnel.

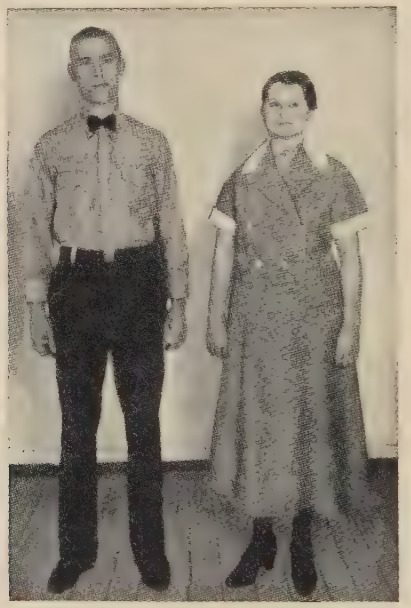


FIG. 23. — Standard Uniforms Worn by All School Janitors and Janitresses in Minneapolis.

Janitorial rules and regulations. — Janitors will be helped by being given a set of rules and regulations describing their duties; they should be expected to become familiar with these rules and regulations and to follow them. Since most janitors are not well trained, it is best to make such rules and regulations somewhat specific. The greater the intelligence and training which the janitors possess, the more school officials are justified in leaving matters of detail to their intelligence and common sense.

One of the most complete, and certainly one of the best, sets of such rules and regulations is that of Minneapolis. That set is published in a handbook, and a copy of it is placed in the hands of each Minneapolis janitor. The Minneapolis rules and regulations treat in detail such items as the following: responsibility of the janitor; hours of duty; sweeping, dusting, mopping; window cleaning; care of toilets; care of storeroom, boiler, and fan rooms; care of sidewalks and yards; disposal of sweepings and rubbish; the use of electricity and water; the cleaning away of snow; ventilation of classrooms, temperature to be maintained, and care of ventilating apparatus, precautions to be taken against fires, attention to give to school exits; etiquette of the United States flag; care of clocks; care of pupils' desks and of other furniture; the making of repairs; the taking of the inventory; care, and use, of supplies; co-operation of the janitor with the principal and teachers; messenger service; vacation duties; and contract of the janitor.

SALARY OF SCHOOL JANITORS

Amount of salary. — The amount of salary paid the members of the janitorial personnel largely determines their qualifications. If the qualifications of a janitorial staff are of a poor type, one of the first questions that should be asked is whether the salary is sufficiently high to attract to, and to keep in, the service amply qualified persons.

The amount of salary paid to janitors varies widely from one school system to another; the smaller salaries are usually paid in the smaller systems and the larger salaries are paid in the larger systems. According to a study made by the Research Division of the National Education Association, the median salary of school janitors in 1989 cities of the United States in 1934–35 was $1182. The same study reported that these salaries were approximately 20 per cent more in 1938–39 than in 1934–35; however, the 1938–39 median was still below the median of the pre-depression years.[1]

[1] "Salaries of School Employees, 1938–39," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* (March, 1939), Vol. XVII.

Standardization of salaries. — Whereas much progress has been made toward formulating efficient salary schedules for teachers, little has been done toward designing such schedules for janitors. In most school systems it seems that each janitor is left to secure as much pay as he can, and that school officials are left to pay no more than they must, or as little as they can.

Many communities have designed pay schedules for the various kinds of work to be performed. In such schedules four factors are usually considered in determining the amount of compensation: (1) cleaning, (2) heating and ventilating, (3) washing windows, and (4) care of lawns and sidewalks. The rate of pay for each of these types of service is determined in part by the type and in part by the age of the building. Since an old building is more difficult to operate than a new building, a higher rate of pay is usually stipulated for the janitorial work of old buildings. For example, the janitor's salary schedule of a certain school system classifies the school buildings into five groups, on the basis of the type of heating plant and the age of the building. The pay for caring for a modern heating plant in a new building is not so large as that for caring for an archaic heating plant in an old building — a building which often has sectional or firebox boilers, stoves, or furnaces in various parts of the building. Likewise the pay for cleaning the building is given on the basis of the type and age of the building. Looking after the heating of the building is usually paid for on a cubic-foot basis. Cleaning the building is usually paid for on a square-foot basis. There is a stipulated rate of pay for washing windows and other glass areas, another rate for the care of domestic science rooms, industrial arts rooms, kindergarten rooms, and other rooms which require more labor than ordinary classrooms. C. E. Reeves and H. S. Ganders say that the following elements should be considered when salary schedules for school janitors are being made: [1]

[1] *School Building Management*, p. 32.

1. *Experience.* In most salary schedules for teachers a limited amount of experience is usually credited toward increases in salary. Increases for experience should stop when added experience does not bring added improvement. . . . Studies should be made to determine the amount of experience that will bring actual improvement in the work of janitor-engineers. . . .

2. *Training.* Teachers' salary schedules usually grant increases in salary for years of training. Salary schedules for janitor-engineers should doubtless grant increases for special training for their work. No one knows what training should be required for increases in salaries, or how large the increases should be. Since there are few opportunities for janitor-engineers to secure training in their work, this factor would be little more than a matter of form at present.

3. *Merit.* There is a growing tendency to grant increases in salaries for merit in formulating teachers' salary schedules. Merit is determined by a system of ratings of the work of teachers. Merit in the work of school janitor-engineers can be determined with greater accuracy than can merit in the work of teachers. This doubtless should be an important factor in constructing salary schedules for janitor-engineers.

4. *Degree of responsibility.* Just as there is usually an added increment, or a salary schedule on a higher plane, for principals than for teachers, so for custodians or head janitors there should be an added increment or a schedule on a higher plane than for assistants. This does not mean that the head janitor-engineer should have equal authority with the principal or that his salary should be based on the same schedule. It simply means that, so far as responsibility is concerned, the relationship between the head janitor-engineer and his assistants is comparable to that between the principal and his teachers and that this factor should receive recognition.

SERVICE LOAD AND WORKING SCHEDULES OF SCHOOL JANITORS

Service load. — One of the most difficult problems in the administration of school-janitorial service is the determination of what constitutes a proper service load for each janitor. This difficulty doubtless accounts for the small progress that has been made toward standardizing the service load. The problem is difficult for two reasons. In the first place, the abilities (mental and physical) of the janitors vary widely; in consequence, a desirable service load for one janitor is either too large or too small for another janitor. In the second

place, buildings vary widely in the ease with which their janitorial work may be performed.

The most common bases upon which attempts have been made to standardize the service load of school janitors are: the number of pupils in attendance in the building; the number of classrooms in the building; the cubic contents of the building; the number of square feet of floor area in the building; the number of square feet of window area; the number of square feet of blackboard area; and the number of square feet of sidewalks and lawns. Although the above bases can be accepted in the main, they should seldom be adopted without qualification because the conditions in two school buildings are seldom the same. C. E. Reeves and H. S. Ganders say that the following twenty-two factors should be considered in determining the service load of janitors: [1]

1. *The administration of the building.* In some buildings children are orderly and under their teachers' guidance, and thus reduce the janitor's load. In others, children destroy school property and carelessly add to the janitor's work. . . .

2. *Size of building.* It is evident that, for some cleaning jobs, a building of 40 rooms would constitute twice the load of a building of 20 rooms of equivalent size.

3. *Age and state of repair of building.* An old building in a poor state of repair is, of course, more difficult to keep clean than a new building in good repair.

4. *Location of building.* School buildings in residential sections are much easier to keep clean than buildings in smoky, industrial sections. Buildings surrounded with trees and grass are easier to keep clean than buildings on wind-swept, sandy slopes.

5. *Climatic conditions.* Aside from the difference in the amount of firing required and the additional work entailed in caring for furnaces and boilers, the use of coal adds to the burden of keeping buildings clean. A building in the South where little firing is required would be easier to keep clean than one in the North; a building in California, where oil is often used for fuel, would be easier to keep clean than one in Minnesota, where coal is burned.

6. *Type of building structure.* Whether the school building is constructed of brick or of wood, is two stories or four, is well constructed or

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 28–30.

poorly constructed, greatly affects the janitorial service within the building. . . .

7. *Kind of school.* . . . Whether the pupils are 6 to 12 years of age in an elementary school, 13 to 15 years of age in a junior high school, or 16 to 18 years of age in a senior high school, makes considerable difference in the work of caring for a school building.

8. *Social background of pupils.* Anyone who has visited schools will recognize that the social background of pupils within a school determines to a marked degree the cooperation obtainable from pupils in keeping the building presentable.

9. *Enrollment.* Certain janitorial functions must be performed regardless of whether 800 pupils or 1600 pupils are in attendance. On the other hand, it is a well-known fact that the work of keeping a building clean increases with the amount of use.

10. *Type of rooms.* Room for room, other things being equal, a school giving only the old-type of elementary work is much easier cared for than an elementary or high school having many special rooms for industrial arts, drawing, domestic science, etc.

11. *Amount and kind of floor area.* The kind of floor surface to be cleaned is important. A janitor can sweep, in a given time, twice as much area of good maple or terrazzo floor, as of splintered pine. Kind as well as amount must enter into the assignment of janitorial load.

12. *Area, size, and location of windows.* Anyone who has tried to clean window glass knows that the location of windows and the size of panes affect the rate of cleaning as well as the number of square feet of area to be cleaned.

13. *Area, kind, and utilization of blackboards.* Slate blackboards, presenting a smooth, even surface may be more easily and effectively cleaned than other types. The amount of use of blackboards varies greatly from room to room and from building to building.

14. *Type and arrangement of desks and other furniture.* Certain kinds of school desks admit of cleaning a room much more quickly than do other kinds. The placement of furniture and sometimes the way the floor itself is laid may force janitors to sweep classrooms crosswise rather than lengthwise of the boards. This makes cleaning difficult.

15. *Size of site, playground covering, and gardening.* Playground covering has an important bearing upon janitorial load. A concrete playground, or one covered with clean smooth pebbles or crushed stone, reduces the amount of dirt to be removed from the building. A clay or dirt-covered playground increases it. The size of yards and lawns and the amount of gardening and care expected of janitors in maintaining the grounds will affect the amount of service required for a particular building.

16. *Area and placement of sidewalks.* Long sidewalks covering the natural route to building entrances, or the absence of them, are factors to consider in assigning a janitorial staff to man a particular building.

17. *Type and condition of heating equipment.* Whether buildings are heated by means of a hot-water or steam-heating plant, a hot-air furnace, or jacketed stoves makes a great deal of difference in the amount of service required. The condition and effectiveness of the heating apparatus must also be taken into account.

18. *Type and condition of ventilating equipment.* A building equipped with the unit ventilating system or a building ventilated by a system of "modified window" ventilation requires less attention by the janitor-engineer than one equipped with a fan system.

19. *Amount and installation of plumbing.* Some kinds of plumbing are notorious for their being constantly out of order and in need of repair while other kinds prove quite satisfactory.

20. *Presence, type, and condition of service systems.* A building equipped with ash hoist, coal conveyance, stokers, chutes, service elevators, and the like, will, of course, require less man-power in properly caring for it.

21. *Janitor's shop and store rooms.* Properly located and equipped shop and store rooms save time and add to efficiency of janitorial-engineering service.

22. *Cleaning equipment.* Such equipment as a central vacuum cleaning system and an electric scrubbing machine will lower the man-power requisite in caring for buildings.

Working schedules. — Many school systems have done considerable experimenting with working schedules for janitors, that is, written schedules which show the times at which certain duties must, or should, be performed. School officials who have introduced such schedules are more happy over the results than the janitors who are expected to follow them. Janitors frequently feel that their work cannot be planned, except roughly, and that any such planning should be done "in their heads." That such schedules have values worth attempting to secure is seen from the following appraisal by L. W. Mahone who has had considerable experience with them:[1]

We may reasonably assume then, that a written daily schedule for the custodian is very much worthwhile if handled with the same intelligent

[1] "Custodian Working Schedules — Are They Worthwhile?" *School Business Affairs* (November, 1939), Vol. IV, p. 5.

cooperation which is necessary to make any part of our school system function successfully. The cooperation of the principal is vital. The custodian must realize that the schedule does not definitely tie him down every minute of the day. For the guidance of everyone concerned it should show the times at which certain duties must (or should) be performed and also show the times available for miscellaneous duties. For the guidance of a possible substitute it should show such things as: just when the boiler needs attention, when ashes should be removed, the time for recess duties, just when the various rooms should be cleaned, and other "fixed" items. It is practical to work out such a schedule for any school and it should be very much worthwhile to any school system. The custodian, the teachers, the principal, the board members, and even the general public, can all benefit from it.

CONTRACTS FOR SCHOOL JANITORS

Kind of contract. — It is recommended that janitors be employed only on the basis of a *written* contract. Such an agreement tends to eliminate misunderstanding and friction between employer and employee. A contract form such as that illustrated in Fig. 24 may be adapted to the needs of any situation. When the school system has a set of janitorial rules and regulations, as has been recommended in previous paragraphs, it should supplement and be made a part of the contract.

Term of employment. — The number of months during which janitors are employed depends usually upon the size of the school system and the size of the buildings over which they have custody; some school systems employ janitors only during the school term, whereas others give them year-round employment. The rural and village school systems usually employ them only during the months of the school term. Most of the city systems, on the contrary, employ them during the whole year and find work for them in the summer months. The tendency, though, in both rural and city schools is to employ them during the whole year.

There are two advantages of employing the janitor on a year-round basis. In the first place, the janitor has employment throughout the year, and this results in the securing of a better qualified type of employee. In the second place,

It is agreed between the Board of Education of
..... and .....
as follows:

1. That Mr. .....shall serve as Janitor in the .....Public Schools for the term of one year, commencing....., for the annual salary of $.....to be paid in semi-monthly installments on the 1st and 15th of the month.
2. That he shall have supervision of and be directly responsible for the maintenance and proper operation of the mechanical plant of the school, including all heating, ventilating, plumbing, and lighting apparatus.
3. That he shall have supervision of and be directly responsible for the care, upkeep, and condition of grounds and sidewalks.
4. That he shall devote his time during working hours on the school grounds to the discharge of his duties, and shall not engage in any other business during those hours.
5. That he shall perform all duties incident to his work or any other duties assigned by the Board of Education or its representative.
6. That a vacation of two weeks per year shall be granted with full pay.
7. That he shall be responsible for taking care of the cleaning of bowls, sinks, toilets, furniture, blackboards, etc.
8. That he shall not make any purchases or authorize any expenditure of money without a written order from the Board of Education or its representative.
9. That repairs which require extra help and materials are to be done on requisition from the Board of Education or its representative.

.....
.....

FIG. 24. — A Suggested Janitor's Contract.

someone is responsible for the care and the protection of the building, equipment, and grounds during the summer months. During the summer months it can be arranged for the janitor to give the building a thorough cleaning, make repairs of a minor and non-technical nature, look after the receipt and the storage of fuel and other supplies, care for the lawn and shrubbery, make ready the building for community meetings, and act as custodian of the school property.

In many school systems, during part or all of the summer vacation, the janitors are organized into small work gangs for doing certain repair jobs. For example, those janitors who can do carpentry work are placed in a carpenter gang; similarly, other gangs are formed, the number and type depending on the number of janitors and their special abilities. The most frequently organized gangs are those for the following types of repairs: carpentry, painting, electrical, plumbing, heating and ventilating, and masonry. When such work gangs are organized it is advisable to place over each gang a foreman who is an artisan in the type of work that particular gang is expected to perform.

Practically all the school systems which employ their janitors on the year-round basis provide a short vacation during the summer months with full pay; the most common practice is to give a two weeks' vacation. School systems which employ their janitors only for the duration of the school term usually do not provide a vacation with pay. Where it can be practicably arranged, the janitors' vacation should be set in such a way that someone is in charge of each building at all times; in the larger school systems this objective can be attained if all janitors are not given the same weeks for their vacation.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What legal qualifications, if any, should be required of the school janitor? Does your state now have any such requirements? What, if any?

2. Is it true, as many school officials claim, that an excellent janitor is more difficult to secure than an excellent teacher?

3. Outline an efficient and practicable plan for selecting school janitors in a city of approximately 10,000 population.

4. Should school janitors be under civil service regulations? Why or why not? Are there such regulations in your state?

5. Would you favor a probationary appointment for school janitors? Explain.

6. Should the school janitor be employed on an annual basis or during

the school year only? How would the type and the size of school determine your decision? Explain.

7. Account for the fact that the school janitorship has been professionalized more in the city schools than in the rural schools.

8. Should the school janitor be expected and required to make repairs? Why or why not? What types of repairs might he make?

9. In many cities the school janitors are members of trade unions, and in some cities the trade unions will not permit janitors to make repairs. How would you deal with this problem in a city in which you might be superintendent of schools?

10. How may the principal and the superintendent of schools assist the janitor to increase his efficiency?

11. In what ways may teachers and janitors co-operate in helping one another?

12. Outline a plan for supervising and inspecting the work of the school janitor and for measuring his efficiency.

13. What are some of the chief ways by which an inefficient janitor can waste his salary in supplies and by which an efficient janitor can save his salary?

14. In many of the large school buildings night janitors are employed. What advantages are claimed for this practice?

15. What labor-saving equipment and tools should be provided for the janitor?

16. Should provisions be made for pensioning school janitors the same as teachers? Why or why not? What provisions, if any, do the laws of your state make for janitors' pensions?

17. What factors make the cost of operating small school buildings much larger in proportion than large buildings?

18. Would you favor the plan which Cincinnati, Ohio, used a few years ago of contracting with one person to furnish the school-janitorial service for the whole city? Why or why not? Would you favor the contractual plan for one building? Explain.

19. What records should the janitor keep? Explain the purpose of each record suggested.

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Chapter XIII

MAINTENANCE OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

THE MAINTENANCE PROBLEM

Maintenance defined. — In the nomenclature of school-financial accounting, "maintenance" refers to keeping the school site, the building, and the equipment in as near their original state of repair as possible. It is sometimes called "maintenance of plant." Maintenance charges include expenditures for both *repairs* and *replacements*.[1] Most maintenance charges are for repairs; occasionally, however, replacements are necessary. The excess of replacements over any depreciation which is not covered by repairs is usually called betterments, and betterments should be distinguished from repairs and replacements; expenditures for betterments are called capital outlays in financial accounting. In normal times approximately 5 per cent of school expenditure is devoted to plant maintenance; the percentage, though, is far less in times of depression than in good times.

Importance of proper maintenance. — All parts of the school plant are continually depreciating. Depreciation begins from the day on which a new building is accepted from the contractor. In fact, it begins before the building has been completed, for every material is constantly undergoing that process. Likewise every item of equipment continually depreciates. Although Nature does her work well, she does not produce anything that will last forever. What Nature gives she takes away, and mere man cannot prevent it, although he

[1] The clarity of financial accounting systems could be much improved by substituting the term "repairs and replacements" for the term "maintenance."

can retard it. Someone has said that "everything is on an irresistible march to the junk heap"; the school plant is no exception to this rule.

Four factors are always operating to cause the depreciation of a school plant. The first, and usually the greatest, cause is the *wear and tear of usage.* A second cause is *physical decay or decrepitude.* A third cause is *obsolescence,* that is, a growing out of educational utility or of up-to-dateness. The fourth cause is *accidents* — accidents which may be the result of negligence or of defects in materials or construction.

Depreciation of a plant and of its several parts does not, however, proceed at the same rate. In the first place, it varies with the type of materials used in constructing the plant and with the quality of workmanship. In the second place, it varies with the parts of the plant. Certain parts depreciate much more rapidly than others, owing to the operation of the causes of depreciation above mentioned. According to an exhaustive study made by H. M. Schwartz, the parts of the building which deteriorate rapidly or fairly rapidly, and which need constant repair, are, in order of frequency: bells, clocks, alarms, batteries, windows, boilers, paint, grounds, sash cords, wiring, door checks and stops, electric fixtures, roofs, doors and hinges, drains, locks, switchboards, blackboards, stairways, fire escapes, feed lines, and toilet bowls.[1] The rate of depreciation varies, in the third place, with the climate; some climates are much more damaging to buildings than others. In the fourth place, the rate varies with the amount and the carefulness of use of the plant; a building carefully and sparingly used depreciates less rapidly than one roughly and constantly used.

Although depreciation cannot be eliminated, much can be done to *retard* it. School officials can take two steps to retard and decrease the depreciation of school property. Those steps are: (1) teach pupils and other persons to have proper respect for the property and (2) make repairs to the property

[1] *Improvement in the Maintenance of Public School Buildings,* p. 15.

as soon as the need for them is discovered, or as soon thereafter as possible.

In any campaign to teach respect for school property a first step to take is to put the property in a "respectable" condition; school plants having broken window glass, dilapidated desks, filthy toilets, dirty walls, and similar conditions are far from being "respectable." Pupils will co-operate in keeping the school property in good condition once it has been placed in such condition, and provided they are given a slight amount of guidance; they are not vandals born and bred. But one broken window glass, one mark on the walls, one paper wad, one knife slash will tend to call forth another such act.

A second thing to keep in mind in providing for the maintenance of school property is to make all repairs as soon as practicable after the need for them has been discovered. The preceding paragraph has suggested that repairs be made immediately, because a dilapidated building is a standing invitation to vandalism. Moreover, the repairs should be made immediately because they can be made much more cheaply and easily than if they are postponed. Just as the imediate repair of a dwelling house or of an automobile is the mark of a wise owner, so the timely repair of school property is another characteristic of an efficient school official. Still more, repairs to school property should be made immediately because, if postponed too long, school may have to be closed while they are made. Negligence will often make it necessary to close school for a day or longer to permit the making of repairs to the heating plant, to the plumbing system, and to other vital parts of the building or its equipment. A recent investigation concludes that defects in school buildings cause an annual loss to teachers of at least two million teaching days; many of these defects are occasioned by improper repairs.[1]

[1] National Education Association, *Ninth Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers*, 1938.

MAINTENANCE PROCEDURES

Ascertaining needed repairs. — In order that needed repairs shall not go undiscovered, a periodic and systematic inspection of all school property should be made. An *annual* inspection is recommended. During March, April, or May — a month or two before the close of the school term — is the best time to make this inspection. The making of the inspection during one of the spring months gives the maintenance department ample time to plan the schedule of repairs to be made during the summer months and to purchase the supplies and materials needed. Moreover, it permits the securing of the opinions of the janitors, principals, and teachers on needed repairs, and on the way in which the repairs should be made. If *two* inspections each year are deemed advisable, the second can usually be most feasibly made shortly before the Christmas vacation; this inspection will often be the means of discovering repairs which, if not made during the Christmas vacation, may cause the closing of the school or result in handicapping the educational program in some way. Of course, the second inspection does not need to be so intensive as the spring one; its chief purpose should be to discover emergency repairs, that is, those which cannot be postponed until the summer vacation.

In the spring inspection every part of the school plant should be carefully gone over. Everything on the school site, including the fences, walks, and playground apparatus, should be inspected. Moreover, each nook and corner of every room and each item of furniture and equipment should be carefully scrutinized. In order that nothing will be overlooked, it is a good plan to use a check list of all the items and parts of the building to be inspected.[1]

When the spring inspection has been completed, the schedule of repairs for the summer may be made. It is a good

[1] For forms which may be used in making this inspection and for planning the repair schedule for the summer, the reader is referred to the author's *The Business Administration of a School System*, pp. 242–243.

plan to classify the repairs into two kinds: first, those that are *absolutely necessary* and, second, those which, while not absolutely necessary, are *desirable*. If the status of the school budget will not permit the making of both desirable and necessary repairs, the *necessary* ones should be made first.

Maintenance personnel. — Many repairs of an emergency, of a minor, or of a non-technical nature can be made by the school janitors. Often the janitors have ample time to make such repairs and often they can make them as efficiently as artisans. One of the many qualifications which school officials should keep in mind in employing a janitor is his ability to make such repairs. A superintendent of school buildings, a supervisor of school janitors, or a similar official can be of much service in teaching janitors to make these minor repairs.

During the summer months many of the larger school systems organize the janitors into work gangs for the making of certain repairs. For example, those janitors who can paint are placed in the painting gang; those who can do carpentry work are placed in the carpentry gang; and those who can do masonry, electric, plumbing, or other work are placed in appropriate gangs; a window-cleaning gang is also frequently organized. Over each repair gang is usually placed a foreman who is an artisan in his field and who is otherwise competent to instruct, and to direct the work of, his men.

There are many repair jobs, however, which school janitors cannot do, either because of lack of time or because of training and ability. Special maintenance workmen must, therefore, be employed for this work. Since the amount of repair work is not sufficient for full-time employees, most of the rural, village, and small-city school systems employ workmen on a contract or an hourly basis for special repair jobs. The larger school systems may practicably employ, on a regular salary, repair workmen who give all their time to maintenance work; for example, large school systems could probably

afford to employ one, or more, full-time carpenters, plumbers, painters, masons, electricians, and landscape gardeners.[1] Since carpentry repairs are the most common of any type, if only one repair employee can be provided, a carpenter should probably be that first employee. A painter should probably be the second.

Schools having departments of industrial arts may frequently permit the advanced students of these departments to make repairs which are not too technical for their understanding and skill. Any repairs made by students should, however, be made under close supervision of the instructor. Moreover, the purpose of such work should be primarily to give instruction to the students, not merely to save the school money. School officials and employees should never be guilty of profiteering upon the time of students.

The repair shop. — School systems with at least 50,000 population should consider the practicability of establishing a repair shop in which repairs to furniture and other equipment may be made. Moreover, in this shop certain items of furniture and equipment may be constructed for the schools, and often they may be constructed at a substantial saving in price. If a repair shop is organized, it should be as near the center of the school district as possible, and should be located on or near a streetcar line or other transportation route. Often an old school building no longer suitable for class purposes may be turned into a repair shop for the school system. The larger school systems which have established such shops and employ special repair workmen claim that such an organization produces financial economies and secures the repairs more quickly and expertly. Most school systems combine their shops and storehouse for supplies in one build-

[1] In the Minneapolis, Minnesota, schools the Division of Repair and Maintenance is in charge of a director. This division is divided in turn into the following sections: office, heating, ventilating, plumbing, electrical, painting, mill, cabinet shop, furniture and equipment, seat refinishing, carpentry and building, masonry, roofing, sheet metal and tinsmithing, clock, locks and building hardware, window shades, glazing, and machine shop.

ing. Most of them also have their school garages in or close to this building.

Ordering and inspecting repairs. — Many repairs are of an emergency nature, and a procedure for ordering and making them should be provided in the rules and regulations of the board of education. If there is a special maintenance department, the principal should send his order for repairs immediately to the head of that department. If the repairs are of a major character, the need for, and the nature of, them should probably be checked up by someone from the maintenance department before they are made.

A written record should be kept of all repairs ordered and of all of those made. If the principal of the school should find it necessary to order repairs by telephone, this conversation should be later put in written form.[1] The office of the maintenance department should keep a record of all repairs; among other matters this record should specify the school in which the repairs were made, the nature of the repairs, the date of making, and the cost; these records are often useful in budget making, in financial accounting, and in future planning.

After the repairs have been completed, the efficiency with which the work has been done should be inspected. No payment should be made for the repairs until this inspection has been made and reported upon favorably. If the repair personnel is working on a per hour or a per diem basis, someone in the school system should be responsible for reporting the amount of time spent on the repairs; usually the responsibility of keeping the time of the repair force can be delegated to the janitor or the principal. Often, too, the janitor or the principal can report on the efficiency with which repairs have been made. On some jobs, however, and particularly on those of a major or a technical nature, some employee from the main-

[1] For a sample blank for requisitioning repairs and for a permanent record for recording information on repairs, the reader is referred to the author's *The Business Administration of a School System*, pp. 248–249.

tenance department, who is a specialist in that type of repair, should make the inspection.

Maintenance of floors. — Since the part of most school buildings requiring frequent attention is the floors, a special word should be said of this problem. The problem is particularly urgent in all buildings which have wood floors, as most buildings do. It is less difficult in the few which have such floors as terrazzo, cement, linoleum, or cork. The problem is particularly difficult in rural districts because of the inevitable carrying in of much sand, dirt, and similar elements which are certain to mar and damage floors.

The type of floors will, of course, determine the type of maintenance. In an extensive investigation Jens Flikeid recommends a penetrating type of floor seal for wood floors; after it is sealed the floor should be cleaned periodically with an oil substance. He recommends a cement floor filler for cement floors, and a high-grade neutral vegetable-oil base soap for terrazzo floors. For linoleum and cork floors he recommends treatment with water emulsion wax.[1] Many firms sell materials for floor treatment, and most of them sell on a "money-back" guarantee.

KEEPING THE SCHOOL PLANT ATTRACTIVE

Importance of an attractive plant. — In addition to playing an important part in the educative process, the school plant plays an important part in public relations. If the results of the silent tuition of beauty could be measured, it would doubtless be found that pupils and employees are more efficient in a beautiful environment than in mean surroundings. Moreover, a respect for the beautiful which pupils, school employees, and the general public receive from a beautiful school plant is sure to be an ennobling influence throughout their lives.

Whereas the school plant should be one of the most beau-

[1] "What to Do about Floors," *Nation's Schools* (February, 1937), Vol. XIX, pp. 60–66.

tiful and best kept places in the community, it is frequently "an abomination unto the Lord." Often the schoolyard is not landscaped and is full of rocks, holes, and similar obstructions; often neither the exterior nor the interior of the building has been decorated for many years; often a picture or other work of art cannot be found in the building; and often the furniture has been irreparably whittled away by pupils' knives. In



FIG. 25. — View of the Main Corridor in the Greenfield, Ohio, School Building.

fact, in many instances, the school plant is hardly fit to shelter horses, cattle, or hogs.

Beautification of interiors. — In the typical school building insufficient attention has been devoted to the beautification of foyers, corridors, special rooms, and classrooms through such means as proper color treatment, mural paintings, statuary, and growing plants. In fact, innumerable buildings are devoid of any touch of beauty.

As an example of school buildings with beautiful interiors, and of school buildings which are remarkably well kept,

Greenfield, Ohio, may be cited. The interior of that building is a veritable art gallery as will be seen from a glance at Fig. 25, which shows a view of the main corridor. Although this building has been in operation more than twenty years, and has been used by thousands of pupils during that time, it is difficult to find a mark, scratch, or other evidence of misuse anywhere on the building, the equipment, or the site. What Greenfield has done, any community can do. Pupils there are no more angelic than those of other communities.

To procure such decorations and other contributions to beauty does not require a large financial outlay. A beginning may be made with the available funds; then other improvements may be secured from time to time as additional funds become available. Private funds may often be secured to supplement public funds for such purposes. In many communities the funds are secured through such means as shows, athletic contests, art exhibits (with borrowed specimens), "junk day," and donations of the parent-teacher association, or other groups, or of interested individuals. In other schools the various classes, particularly the graduating class, often present a picture, painting, or other work of art to the school. Although appropriate space should be found for them, the pictures of graduating classes which cover the walls, especially, in the corridors, of many school buildings can hardly be regarded as works of art.

Landscaping. — For a given expenditure nothing adds as much to the exterior appearance of a building as proper landscaping. An ugly school building may be transformed into a beautiful building, and a beautiful building may be made still more beautiful, by means of trees, shrubbery, flowers, grass, proper grading of the site, appropriate barriers, and other landscaping effects. A view of a well-landscaped school plant is shown in Fig. 26.

Many schools utilize Arbor Day for the improvement of their landscaping; it is unfortunate, however, that some of them do their plantings from year to year without any plan,

and soon develop a landscaping monstrosity. It is recommended, therefore, that every school have a definite plan of the landscaping which is to be done eventually. Ideally, such a plan would be developed by a landscape architect. When funds are not available to employ such individuals, landscaping suggestions may often be secured gratis from the division of school buildings of the state department of education or from the department of landscape architecture of one of the colleges or universities.



FIG. 26. — A View of a Well-Landscaped School Plant, Greenfield, Ohio.

REPLACEMENT OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS

Life expectancy of school buildings. — The life expectancy of school buildings is still largely a matter of opinion because of the lack of sufficient experience with different types of buildings, especially the better constructed ones of recent years. On the basis of kinds of materials used in their construction, the American Institute of Architects has classified school buildings into the five following types:

Type A. A building constructed entirely of fire-resistive materials, including its roof, windows, doors, floors, and finish.

Type B. A building of fire-resistive construction in its walls, floors, stairways, and ceilings, but with wood finish, wood or composition floor surface, and wood roof construction over fire-resistive ceiling.

Type C. A building with masonry walls, fire-resistive corridors and stairways, but with ordinary construction otherwise, that is, combustible floor, partitions, roofs, and finish.

Type D. A building with masonry walls, but otherwise ordinary, or joist, construction and wood finish.

Type E. A frame building constructed with wood above foundation, with or without slate or other semi-fireproof material on roof.

Although they are necessarily somewhat subjective, the following estimate of the length of life of each of the types of buildings mentioned above is widely accepted today:

Type of Building	*Estimated Life (years)*
A	60
B	60
C	40
D	30
E	20

In a study of the average age of school buildings recommended for replacement in the school-building surveys of ten cities, T. C. Holy and H. H. Davis found the average age of those buildings to be 47.6 years. They found also that the average age of buildings actually replaced was 43.2 years.[1]

When to abandon a school building. — Although repairs may have been made immediately, carefully, and otherwise competently, it is impossible to keep a building entirely in its original condition. The time eventually comes when the question must be asked for every school building, whether it should be abandoned or repaired for further use. In answering this question, educational utility and the health and safety of pupils and employees, rather than cost, should be the deciding factor. In their 1000-point score card for measuring the condition of an elementary school building G. D. Strayer and

[1] "Method of Determining Expenditures Required to Maintain the Status Quo of School Plants," *American School Board Journal* (June, 1927), Vol. LXXIV, pp. 45–46.

N. L. Engelhardt say that any school building with a score of less than 500 points is invariably so poor that it is a waste of money to attempt to repair it. They affirm that such a building should be abandoned at the earliest possible moment. J. C. Almack suggests that the following matters be kept in mind in deciding whether a building should be abandoned or repaired to place it in condition for using a year or more longer: [1]

1. A building should be abandoned at once when it is unsafe, or when the health and morals of the children are seriously threatened by its continued occupancy.

2. It should be abandoned when the maintenance and added cost of operation are sufficient to offset the maintenance and interest charges on a new building of equal capacity and utility.[2]

3. It should be abandoned when it is inconvenient from the point of view of accessibility as when the residence section has been moved away.

4. It should be abandoned when manifestly unsuited to modern school needs and too far depreciated physically to warrant alterations and additions.

School buildings which are abandoned usually should be razed or otherwise disposed of as soon as possible. In large school systems they may occasionally be used for storehouses, shops, and garages. Abandoned school buildings soon become community eyesores and injure surrounding property; moreover, they are a constant temptation to vandalism. Still more, they are often put into use again when they should not be. For example, buildings earlier abandoned have been frequently taken over at a later time for vocational schools, for classes for the blind, deaf, crippled, and other types of atypical children. Why these dilapidated and obsolete buildings should be good enough for atypical children but not suitable for normal children is difficult to understand.

[1] "The Maintenance of School Buildings," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1925), Vol. LXXI, pp. 143–144.

[2] For an excellent formula for determining when a building is in such condition that further expenditures for repairs should not be made, see D. D. Cunliff, "Bettering School Maintenance by Accounting," *American School Board Journal* (August, 1937), Vol. XCV, pp. 39–40, 81.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why should repairs be made as soon as the need for them has been discovered?

2. What steps may school officials take to decrease the depreciation of school property? In particular, what steps may they take to decrease the amount of broken window glass and the depredations in toilets?

3. What relationships are there between the amount of repairs and repair costs and the type of building construction?

4. How should school officials proceed to determine the type and the size of the maintenance personnel needed?

5. What factors would determine the advisability of employing a special maintenance personnel?

6. Would you favor a central repair shop for a school system? Why or why not? What standards should such a shop meet?

7. To what extent may the industrial arts department be asked or permitted to assist in making repairs? Explain your views.

8. In your state may pupils be required to pay for any malicious damage to school property? Should they be required to pay?

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PART IV

Administration of School Business Affairs

Chapter XIV

FINANCING THE SCHOOLS

IMPORTANCE OF AMPLE SCHOOL REVENUE

The efficiency of the schools is determined largely by the amount of school revenue and by the wisdom with which the revenue is expended. The size of classes, the adequacy of the school plant, the type of curriculum, the quality and amount of textbooks and of all other materials, the qualifications of school employees — in fact, all phases of the school program — are affected by the amount of money and the efficiency with which it is expended. If there were no financial support, there would be no schools; if the funds were inadequate or were unwisely expended, the schools would not realize their potentialities.

The schools have always been criticized for possessing certain shortcomings, and they are being criticized today for having many. For example, it is being pointed out that a large portion of the teachers are inadequately trained and inexperienced, that school buildings and equipment are archaic and inadequate, that school terms are too short, that libraries, textbooks, and supplies are not what they should be, that guidance services are not provided, and that many other characteristics of the schools are not what they should be. The merit of these criticisms will be readily admitted; the schools are far from being perfect. It cannot be gainsaid, though, that these deficiencies are being gradually corrected, and when they are corrected more revenue is usually necessary.

CHANGING CONCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL SUPPORT

From private to public support. — In developing a plan for financing the schools, the conceptions of the public have undergone many changes. Two of these changes are so outstanding that they will be commented upon briefly. In the first place, the public has gradually abandoned the belief that education is a private concern, which should be privately supported, and has adopted the belief that it is a public function and should be supported through universal taxation. As was logical, the belief was accepted first for the elementary school, then for the secondary school, and finally for the college and university. It, however, was not accepted without much controversy and conflict; in fact, the battle over the acceptance or the rejection of the idea of universal taxation for school support was one of the longest and most severe battles in the history of American education. The battle, though, was long ago won in every state and territory. Persons who do not have children in school are required to pay school taxes the same as persons who have children in school, and it has been many years since the argument has been heard that "it is as wrong to take my money to educate my neighbor's children as it would be to take my oxen to plow my neighbor's field." In this country the ideal has been to give every pupil who desires it, and is mentally competent to secure it, an education extending from the elementary school to and through the university.

Our practice of universal taxation for school support from the elementary school through the secondary school and the college and university is unusual among the nations of the world. Although public support of elementary schools is found in almost all foreign countries, in none of them are secondary schools or colleges and universities financed entirely through public funds; most of them do not give any public support to secondary schools and higher institutions. In brief, the United States has the only truly public secondary schools

and colleges and universities in the world. It has adopted this policy because of the belief that the welfare and progress of the nation and of each individual in it could best be assured through universal education. It has believed that equality of economic, political, and social opportunity could best be secured for its citizens through equality of educational opportunity. It has regarded equality of educational opportunity as the birthright of every person. Foreign countries, on the contrary, have believed that, after providing the rudiments of education, secondary and higher education at public expense should be provided for only a select few — those few to be chosen on basis of prospective leadership or other competition. They have regarded as wasteful our ideal of attempting to provide free secondary and higher education to everyone who desires it.

From local to state support. — The second outstanding changing conception in the financing of our schools has been regarding the relative place of the local community and of the state in school support; perhaps it would be more accurate to say that this conception is in the process of changing. In the early days the state placed upon the local community the entire responsibility of financing the schools. In those days, though, local financing of them did not result in an unequal burden, because we were an agricultural people and wealth was not concentrated in the urban communities as it usually is today. As state educational standards were raised and as wealth became more and more concentrated in certain communities, inequalities in educational opportunities and in taxation burdens among the various communities became pronounced. In an attempt to decrease these inequalities, the states soon began to give financial aid, especially to communities which lacked a sufficient tax base to support their schools. During recent years the belief that the state has the obligation of assisting all communities to maintain their schools up to the minimum standards established by the state has become almost universal. Every state now gives a

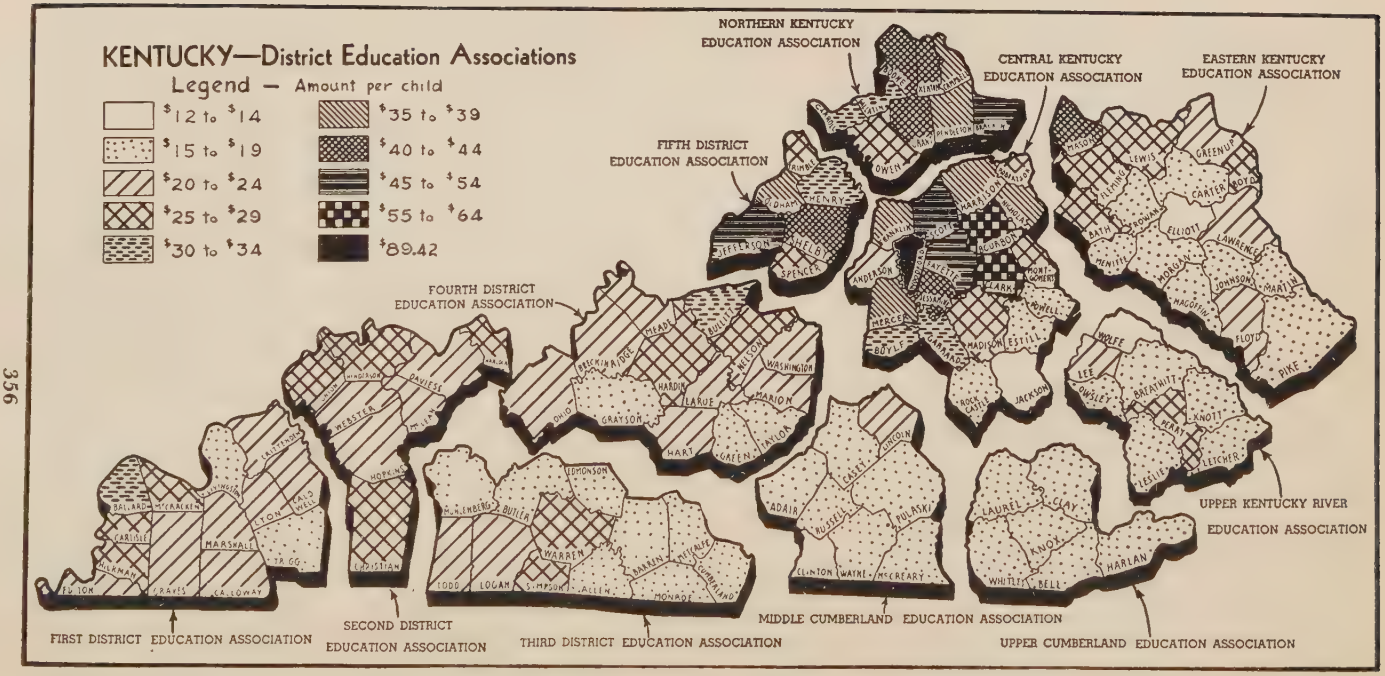


FIG. 27. — Total Revenue per Child Possible from Maximum Local Tax Rate and State Subsidy, by County School Districts in Kentucky, Grouped According to Education Associations. (From Meece, L. E., and Seary, M. F. *Financing Public Elementary and Secondary Education in Kentucky*, p. 48.)

certain amount of state aid for schools, and the tendency has been to increase that amount.

THE INCREASING SCHOOL EXPENDITURES

The amount of the increases. — With the exception of the few periods of economic depression, the expenditures for education have constantly mounted since the time of the founding of the first schools. These increases may be regarded as another evidence of the increasing faith of our people in education. From 1870 to the present, the total expenditures in the United States for public elementary and secondary schools have increased approximately thirtyfold; the expenditures per inhabitant have increased approximately tenfold; and the expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance have increased approximately fivefold.[1]

Although school expenditures have shown large increases in every state, in many states they are still below a standard of respectability. Whereas a few states now spend more than $100 per pupil in average daily attendance, several others spend less than $35 per pupil. These great inequalities in expenditures result in large inequalities in educational opportunities among the states and they have called forth the suggestion that federal funds be granted to the states, especially to those states having low financial ability. These inequalities in expenditures are due primarily to inequalities in wealth and income among the states. They are also due to (1) differences in the intensity of desire of the people for schools and (2) differences in the size and the difficulty of the educational problem occasioned by differences in environmental factors such as climate, density of population, and topography.

No intelligent and fair-minded person can deny that the increases in school expenditures have been large, and that

[1] For the expenditures in each state, the interested reader may consult *Statistics of State School Systems*, which is published biennially by the U.S. Office of Education.

they have been particularly large during the last few decades. The expenditures have increased so rapidly that many of the stanch friends of education have become somewhat perplexed, because they do not know how much longer the public will be able and willing to finance the constantly expanding school program. Persons who are lukewarm toward education, and the proponents of low tax rates, have viewed with alarm the mounting school costs. Many of them have criticized school officials for engaging in what they have called an "orgy" of expenditures, and for making larger expenditures than they believed to be justified by the legitimate purposes of education and by the financial ability of the people.

Explanations for the increases. — To point out the mounting school costs without attempting to explain them is likely to place the schools, at least with any unthinking persons, in a vulnerable position. That practice has been followed many times in the past by persons who were unfriendly toward education. Explanations made for the mounting school costs will usually have to be made by the friends of the schools. It is the obligation of school officials and employees to know the explanations of the mounting school costs and to offer those explanations when occasion demands. In the following paragraphs the explanations for the mounting school costs will be briefly discussed.

The increase in enrollment is the first explanation for the increase in school expenditures. That increase is one of the most significant facts in the history of education of any country. Whereas in the early days formal education was provided for only a favored few — that is, those who were able to pay tuition — it has within recent years become universal. At the present time approximately one-fifth of the people of the United States are regularly enrolled in school, and there is scarcely a home which does not have at least one of its members enrolled. The increase in enrollment has been particularly rapid during the past two decades. It has been

especially rapid in the secondary school, where the per pupil expenditure, justly or unjustly, is almost twice the per pupil expenditure in the elementary school.

The increase in enrollment particularly in the secondary school, bids fair to continue for many years, because the saturation point in secondary school attendance has not been reached in the nation at large. The saturation point has, however, been reached in many communities, and in a few states the point has been approached. In approximately one-fourth of the states more than one-fourth of all pupils are enrolled in the secondary school (grades nine to twelve, inclusive). In approximately one-fifth of the states, on the other hand, less than 15 per cent of all pupils are enrolled in the secondary school. It seems safe to predict, because of the recent tendency of the birth rate of the nation to decrease and of the decline in immigration, that the increase in school attendance will not be so large in the future as it has been in the past. The decreases which have been showing in elementary school enrollment during recent years have already begun to show in the secondary schools in many communities.

During the period between 1914 and 1929 school costs increased especially rapidly and one of the chief explanations of the increase was the decrease in the purchasing power of the dollar which occurred during the period; the 1929 dollar would purchase approximately two-thirds as much as the 1914 dollar. From the latter part of 1929 to the earlier part of 1933 deflation continued apace, and the purchasing power of the 1933 dollar became approximately equal to that of the 1914 dollar. Since the middle of 1933 the purchasing power of the dollar has been decreasing.[1]

During the last three decades approximately one-fourth of the increase in school expenditures may be explained by the

[1] Data on the purchasing power of the dollar are based upon indexes of the cost of living which are published in the *Monthly Labor Review* by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

increase in school attendance, and approximately one-fifth of it may be explained by the decrease in the purchasing power of the dollar. The remainder of the increase, which amounts to approximately one-half the total increase, may be charged to the greater amount and the better quality of education provided the pupil. From the time of their first establishment, the schools have been improved, and this improvement has come because the public has demanded it and has been willing to pay for it. To say, as many persons have opined, that school officials and employees are "parasitic tax spenders" who are taking the people's money without the people's approval is a canard. The people have approved the mounting school expenditures, because they have deemed them necessary.

It is a tradition of America that every parent shall desire for his children a better education than he received, and that he shall be willing to make great sacrifices, if necessary, in order to realize that ambition. School terms have been lengthened from only a few weeks each year to thirty-two, thirty-six, or forty weeks. Better qualified teachers, administrators, and supervisors have been employed; better and more adequate school plants and supplies have been provided; better janitors have been secured; more enriched curriculums have been offered; schools or classes for the handicapped have been organized; and numerous conveniences and services, such as pupil transportation, school libraries, school cafeterias, free lunches (especially to indigents), free textbooks, free supplies, and health service have been provided. In fact, it would be impossible to mention one feature of the school that has not been improved. To summarize, the data show that more people are receiving formal education than ever before and, what is of greater significance, they are receiving a much larger amount and a much better quality of it. Making provision for those improved services and facilities has required the expenditure of increasing amounts of money.

ABILITY TO PAY FOR SCHOOLS

In interpreting the mounting school costs, not only should the explanations of those costs be remembered, but the trend of the ability of the people to support the costs should also be kept in mind. There are two measures of ability to acquire and to support anything. These measures are (1) *wealth* and (2) *income*. In addition to these two measures, the relative value of education compared with the value of other activities and enterprises should be considered. Perhaps the latter is not a measure of ability, but it should always be kept in mind in both public and private finance. It should be kept in mind because the people have only a certain amount of money to spend on various services, activities, and enterprises, and they must properly apportion that income. They must place first things first and not handicap a vital function of government for the sake of financing a less important function; they must not be "penny wise and pound foolish."

Wealth. — In terms of its wealth, the nation has tended to finance its schools better and better as the years have rolled by. For each $1000 of wealth, it now spends annually approximately five times as much for public elementary and secondary schools as it spent annually from 1870 to 1900. Although the wealth of the nation has rapidly increased, school expenditures have increased much more rapidly, especially during recent years.[1]

It should be kept in mind that the facts which have just been given are for *actual* wealth, not for *taxable* wealth; actual wealth is here used, because it is a much more accurate measure of ability than taxable wealth. Taxable wealth is not an accurate measure of ability, because much property, particularly personal property, entirely escapes taxation; moreover, both real estate and personal property tend to be taxed at much less than their true value. If all property were

[1] Data on the wealth of each state may be secured from reports of the U.S. Bureau of the Census.

on the tax duplicate at its true value, the rate of taxation for schools and for other public functions could be greatly reduced in most communities.

Income. — In most foreign countries, if a person is asked how much he is worth, he replies that he is worth an annual *income* of so many pounds, francs, marks, guilders, or other units of money. In the United States the financial ability of the individual is usually stated in terms of dollars of wealth, rather than in terms of income. In the long run the amount of income must be the measure of ability to pay for anything, whether in private affairs or in public enterprises. This is the reason for the widespread agitation for an income tax to take the place, in part at least, of the property tax. If wealth does not produce an income, or if it does not afford a comfort or make some other contribution, it is a dead weight and hardly worth retaining; the wealth of a Croesus would not last forever if it did not produce an income.

Although official data on the income of the people of the United States are not available except for recent years, it is known that the income has increased at a rapid rate.[1] In 1929 that income reached a total of $83,000,000,000, then gradually receded to $39,400,000,000 in 1932. Since 1932 there has been a gradual increase, but most years have shown a subnormal income, seldom reaching $70,000,000,000.

Anyone is certain to be impressed with the huge size of the annual income of the nation and with the tremendous power residing in that income. The income per inhabitant is larger than the total wealth per inhabitant of most other countries. This income, of course, belongs to the people, and since the people are sovereign they can spend it in any way they choose. They can spend it on valuable enterprises or on worthless endeavors; they can spend it on education or on something less important.

Complete and official data showing how the people of the

[1] Annual data on income are published by the U.S. Department of Commerce and by the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

United States spend their income are unfortunately not available. It is known, though, that the total cost of all phases of government — national, state, county, and local — is now more than fifteen billion dollars. Estimating our present national income at seventy billion dollars, it is seen that almost one-fourth of it is used in maintaining government; admittedly this is a large percentage, but it is a much smaller percentage than is devoted to government by any other major country of the world. From this tax expenditure we secure schools for our children, the construction and maintenance of highways and streets, health protection, fire protection, police protection, playgrounds and parks, hospitals, libraries, welfare agencies, old-age pensions, national defense, and scores of similar services and conveniences. Although it cannot be claimed that taxes are a blessing, they are certainly not an unmixed evil.

The amount spent for all types of schools (public and private) is now estimated to be approximately 5 per cent of the total national income. When we compare the amount spent for schools with the amount spent for certain other public or private enterprises, the emphasis on schools does not seem to be too large, if indeed it is large enough. For example, the cost of crime approximates two billion dollars per annum. About $400 a year is required to maintain a delinquent in a public institution and about $300 is required for an adult prisoner; but, less than $100 is spent on each public school pupil. It is a provocative thesis, and one which can be objectively defended, that, if we increase the amount of education and improve the quality of it, crime will be decreased.

From the reports of the United States Bureau of Internal Revenue it can be estimated that the annual expenditures for tobacco amount to approximately two and a half billion dollars. Thus, the nation annually sends up in smoke and chews up five-sixths as much as it spends for all types of schools and colleges (public and private). The liquor bill

of the nation is more than the expenditures for schools, and the bill for soft drinks, ice cream, candy, and chewing gum is more than one-half the expenditures for schools. The World War (1914–1918) has already cost the nation more than it has spent on all types of schools since the founding of the first permanent English settlement at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607. The present defense program of the nation has already cost more than ten billion dollars, and no person can see the end of such expenditures.

The revenue for financing the schools cannot be secured from the thin air nor on the good wishes of the friends of the schools; it must be secured from the income of the people. If more money is to be secured for the schools, it will have to be taken from certain of the other activities now being financed by the public. Peter cannot be paid without taking something from Paul. Since education is so vitally necessary to the welfare of the nation, the public can afford, if necessary, to decrease the expenditure for certain other purposes and to give that extra amount to the schools.

Since the amount of education possessed by the individual largely determines his productivity and his other contributions to society, the expenditures for education are justified on a purely economic basis. Since the amount largely determines his desire and his ability to consume more and better goods, expenditures for education are also justified. Without an educated citizenry, it is difficult to see how publishing houses and newspapers could exist or how manufacturers of innumerable modern conveniences, such as bathtubs, telephones, radios, air conditioners, mechanical refrigerators, airplanes, and automobiles could survive. The savage will be content if he has simple food and meager protection from the elements, but educated people are certain to demand better and more comforts and luxuries. The pre-eminent economic position of our people, compared with the people of other countries, is unquestionably due largely to the high standard of education of our people.

SOURCES OF SCHOOL REVENUE

By far the larger part of public school revenue comes from taxation — taxation of property, income, sales, natural resources, inheritance, and other things. According to statistics of the United States Office of Education, approximately 95 per cent of all public school revenue comes from taxation. The remaining part comes from such sources as endowments, rentals, and gifts.

Four units of support for the public schools are found: (1) federal, (2) state, (3) county, and (4) local. At present the federal government provides approximately 1 per cent of all school revenue; state governments, approximately 25 per cent; county governments, approximately 9 per cent; and local governments, approximately 65 per cent. These percentages vary, of course, from state to state.

Federal sources. — There are two types of regular federal income for the elementary and secondary schools. The first is the income from the early grants of federal lands and moneys to the several states; the second is the annual subsidy for vocational and distributive education. In addition to these types of regular income, the federal government has allotted certain emergency funds to education each year since 1933. Each of these types of federal income will be briefly discussed in the following paragraphs.

By the provisions of the Ordinance of 1785, "an ordinance for ascertaining the mode of disposing of lands in the Western territory," [1] those lands were to be surveyed into "townships of six miles square" with each township having thirty-six "lots" of one mile square. The ordinance said further that "There shall be reserved the lot No. 16 of every township, for the maintenance of public schools, within the said township." The townships here mentioned are usually called "congres-

[1] This principle was first applied to the lands in the Northwest Territory. The Northwest Territory comprised the lands now included in Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, and the eastern part of Minnesota.

sional" townships to distinguish them from the "civil" townships of today.

The Ordinance of 1785 must be regarded as one of the most momentous acts in the history of education, because it instituted a federal policy of supporting schools. The provisions of the ordinance were later applied to other territories when they were given admission into the Union. All the states, with the exception of those comprising the thirteen original colonies and a few others, received at least one lot of each congressional township for the support of public schools. Twelve states received one lot of each congressional township. Fifteen states received two lots of each congressional township. The three states which have been more recently admitted received four lots of each congressional township. All the states, including Alaska Territory, received a total of 98,519,946 acres from these grants.

In addition to the major land grants just mentioned, certain minor grants of land, such as swamp lands and salt lands, have been given to some of the states for public schools. There have also been many money grants, although these have been much smaller than the land grants. Among the more important of the money grants were the so-called "Surplus Revenue Distribution" of 1837 and the "Five Percentum Fund" started in 1803. These minor grants of land and money were not specifically made for public schools, but many of the states soon dedicated them to that purpose.

The total amount of permanent school funds in the various states is now approximately $500,000,000 and practically all this has come from land and money gifts of the federal government. In addition to these funds the states still have approximately 40,000,000 acres of unsold school land with an estimated value of approximately $275,000,000. Only the income from these funds and lands may be used. This income now amounts to approximately $22,000,000 annually. Of course, a few states receive nothing from these sources, whereas other states receive annually several dollars per pupil.

The second type of regular federal support for public schools finds its best example in the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917; this is the federal vocational education act.[1] It provided for the federal subvention of vocational education in agriculture, home economics, and industrial education. It also provided for the preparation of vocational teachers of those subjects. According to the provisions of the act, the subvention was to amount to $1,860,000 in 1917–18, and was to increase annually until a maximum of $7,367,000 was reached in 1925–26. This money is apportioned to the several states on the basis of total population, and in order to receive it "the state or local community, or both, shall spend an equal amount" for this work; each state and local community must also meet certain other standards prescribed by the act. Congress has never failed to make the appropriation for these purposes, but it could, of course, refuse to make them at any time.

In 1933–34 the federal government started the practice of granting emergency funds for various educational purposes (FERA, WPA, NYA, CCC, etc.). The chief aim of these grants has been to relieve the unemployed; secondarily the aim has been to stimulate education. Supposedly these appropriations are to be temporary and will be discontinued when the emergency caused by the business depression has passed. In 1940 an appropriation of fifteen million dollars was made for training employees for defense industries.

State sources. — During recent years the state as a unit has furnished larger and larger amounts of funds for the support of schools. These funds usually come from taxation on property, income, sales, corporations, inheritances, and other sources. New York, for example, furnishes approximately a hundred million dollars annually, and some of the smallest states provide several million dollars annually. At

[1] The recently enacted George-Deen legislation provides an annual subsidy for preparing workers for the distributive occupations.

present approximately 25 per cent of all school revenue is furnished by the state as a unit. The tendency during recent years — a tendency accelerated by the business depression, which caused a breakdown of local systems of support — has been for this percentage to increase. In a few states more than 50 per cent of all school funds is being furnished by the state. Three desirable objectives have been realized by this tendency: (1) educational opportunity for all pupils has been made more equal; (2) the taxation burden among the various districts has been made more equal; (3) the tax on real estate has been lowered.

In some states, aid from the state is given to every school district, whereas in other states aid is given only to the districts which need it most; in still other states a combination of these practices is found. All states provide both *general* and *special* aid. General aid may be used by the school district for any educational purpose not prohibited. Most state funds are for this type of aid. Special aid may be used by the school district only for the special purpose or project prescribed in the laws, and most states stipulate that the local district must match the state grant. The purposes or projects for which the states have most frequently provided special aid are the following: school libraries, pupil transportation, county supervision, vocational education, and the education of the handicapped. Most authorities are opposed to special aid because the tendency is for those districts to receive it which are most able to match the state subsidy. They justly affirm that the *stimulation* principle works against the *equalization* principle. The application of the stimulation principle makes the "rich richer and the poor poorer."

No objection can be raised to the state assisting local districts in meeting the educational standards prescribed by the state; according to this practice, the wealthy districts are taxed to help the impoverished ones. It is but elemental justice for the state to pursue such a policy. The state must, in fact, pursue such a policy for its own perpetuity and progress. It should

be recognized, however, that in the giving of state aid two dangers are ever lurking and must be minimized.[1]

In the first place, there is danger that local communities will be pauperized — that they will say, "There is slight excuse for our working to support our schools, because the state will look after them for us." There is danger that the state will help those who do not help themselves, with the result that local communities tend to lose interest in their schools because they do not have the responsibility of supporting them. In such circumstances, mediocrity throughout the state is placed at a premium.

In the second place, the giving of state aid without establishing proper checks has the danger of continuing, if not of increasing, the waste of school funds. Regarding waste, all that needs to be said is that it is bad enough to have local funds wasted, without pouring state funds into the same "rathole." Waste of school funds is always regrettable, because the public is robbed thereby, and the pupils are cheated of some of their educational patrimony.

Most states have not established sufficient safeguards against the two dangers just stated and especially against the second; in fact, the dangers have never been generally recognized. Too often our states give money to local communities without making sure that the money will be spent in an efficient manner; too often they implicitly trust local school officials and employees to spend these funds without any state inspection and supervision. Too often local communities insist upon securing state funds, but they strenuously object to any attempt of the state to supervise the expenditure of the funds. They want the money, and they want it without any strings. All this illustrates our frequent confusion of individual and social values.

Although the state can go too far in presenting regulations for local districts to meet, most states have not gone far enough

[1] The same dangers are present in the giving of federal aid to the states and to local communities.

in establishing those standards. On the one hand, the state should not go so far in its control and supervision as to stifle community initiative. On the other hand, since education is so important and since the money of all the people is being utilized more and more for school support, the state should make certain that its money is efficiently expended. In brief, a certain amount of state supervision and control is a necessary corollary of state aid. Even that jolly old fellow known as Santa Claus will not visit boys and girls at Christmas unless they "have been good"; he demands certain control before he makes his gifts.

It is reasonable to urge that the state see to it that small and unnecessary schools are merged with other schools, that small and unnecessary school districts are joined with other school districts, that transportation routes are reorganized to permit the elimination of any unnecessary school buses. It is the responsibility of the state to insist that pupil-teacher ratios be changed when they are too large or too small, that co-operative purchasing of supplies be required when it will eliminate waste, that the curriculum be revised to provide for individual development and social improvement. The state should insist that all graft be eliminated, and that any other change be made which will secure a better type, or a greater amount, of education for the money expended.

County and local sources. — In most states the schools are financed primarily by the county and the local community. At present, these two units furnish approximately three-fourths of all school revenue. During recent years larger and larger amounts of state aid have been given, and this tendency has increased the percentage provided by the state and decreased the percentage provided by county and local sources. In some states (especially in the South) the county is the unit of school administration and school finance; in most states, though, the local district is the unit.

The chief source of county and local revenue is still the property tax. The tendency, though, in theory and practice

is to use it less, particularly since the state has come to assume a larger responsibility for school support. Most taxation authorities are agreed that the property tax is a failure as a main source of revenue and that it will have to be largely supplanted by other forms of taxation. In the early days, when most wealth reposed in lands and buildings, the property tax was more equitable and more productive of revenue; it is not suited, however, to the present industrial and commercial era. Much of the wealth of the nation today is of an intangible sort (stocks, bonds, commodities, goods, etc.), and this intangible property the property tax cannot easily reach. Real estate, therefore, must bear the brunt of the tax burden, and this causes justified complaint from real estate owners.

Minor sources of local revenue which are frequently utilized are the following; poll taxes, license fees of various sorts, tuition fees of non-resident pupils, interest on school funds, and rentals and fees on school property. Of course, these sources vary from state to state.

Although school officials and employees everywhere are justified in working for larger amounts of federal and state aid, and for new and more adequate local sources of revenue, they should realize that the consummation of their efforts is dependent upon the decisions of the lawmakers of the states and of the nation and that decisions to change fiscal practices come slowly. They should remember that the schools must be financed from *present* sources of revenue, not from potential sources; they face a "condition rather than a theory." In meeting the revenue problems of the schools, school officials and employees must take two steps: first, eliminate all waste in expenditures; second, avoid all leaks in present sources of revenue and make use of all sources which the present laws provide. These steps will be briefly discussed herewith.

No business, whether public or private, presents so many opportunities for waste as does education. There are thousands of opportunities for waste in education. These oppor-

tunities come from the huge size and the complexity of the enterprise.

Because of the technical and complex nature of education, it is probably too much to expect that all waste in education can be eliminated. Such elimination, though, is the ideal to be kept in mind. Waste in education is unfortunate for two reasons: in the first place, the pupil is cheated of part of his educational patrimony; in the second place, public funds are wasted and the taxpaying public is robbed.

Economies may be classified as *financial* and *pedagogical*. These two types of economies are not mutually exclusive, because a real financial economy results in a pedagogical one and a real pedagogical economy results in a financial one. In attempting to effect economies, false economies should not be mistaken for true ones. When expenditures are decreased and the efficiency of the school is not injured, or is increased, that is a true economy; or, when the same amount of money is expended and the efficiency of the school is increased, that is a true economy. On the other hand, when expenditures are decreased and the efficiency of the school is injured, that is a false economy; or, when the expenditure of an additional amount of money could be made, which would secure educational results clearly beyond the cost, but is not made, that is a false economy.

The prime test, therefore, of whether a given practice or procedure is a true economy or a false one must be determined by the effect upon the welfare and progress of the pupils. A given practice or procedure may result in a true economy in one situation but in a false economy in another situation; for example, the elimination of a certain subject in one school, and the saving of the expense or the allotting of the same amount to other subjects, may be a true economy, whereas in another school that decision would result in a false economy.

In seeing that all leaks in revenue are avoided, school officials and employees must assure themselves on two points. In the first place, they must make certain that all revenues to

which the schools are entitled from present sources come into the school coffers. This means the careful checking of all sources, such as federal, state, and county aid, tuition from non-resident students, delinquent taxes, rentals, and fees. In the second place, they must protect the funds from losses in principal and in income until the funds are expended. This means the adoption of proper methods of selecting depositories, of bonding all fiscal officers, and of accounting.

As a first step in avoiding revenue leaks, every school system should establish an accounting procedure which will record every item of revenue received and every item expended. Likewise, provision must be made for a periodical audit of all receipts and expenditures. Since these matters are to be discussed in detail in Chapter XXVIII, they need not be further dwelt upon here.

If the foregoing steps do not provide sufficient revenue to balance the budget, school officials and employees have but two alternatives. They may (1) curtail the school program or (2) request an extra tax levy. Local conditions will determine which alternative to accept. When an extra tax levy has been requested and refused, curtailment of the school program is the only alternative. In deciding upon what curtailments to make, the following suggestions should be helpful:

1. Curtailments should be made which will do the least harm to the smallest member of pupils.
2. Horizontal slashes are easiest to make, but they are usually the refuge of educational politicians rather than of statesmen. Such procedures should be usually avoided because they do not consider value or merit.
3. Business functions should usually be curtailed before educational functions.
4. Curtailments in the secondary school program should usually be made before those in the elementary school program.
5. Recent additions to the school program should not necessarily be the first items to be curtailed. Some of the oldest phases of the school program are frequently the least valuable and should be curtailed first.
6. Small classes should be eliminated before large ones.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. If tuition must be charged, should it be first charged of secondary school or of college students? Why? What would be the effect upon enrollment of charging tuition in (a) the secondary school and (b) the college and university?

2. Why do secondary schools and colleges and universities cost much more than elementary schools? Are we justified in spending several times as much per pupil in the secondary school and in the colleges and universities as in the elementary school? Explain.

3. Do you prophesy a decrease or an increase in our expenditures for education? Why? What factors are likely to work for an increase, and what factors are likely to work for a decrease? Explain.

4. Do you regard our present expenditures for education as (a) beyond our ability to pay or (b) beyond our need? Explain. Discuss the relation between education and the economic and cultural development of the nation.

5. Should persons who send their children to private or parochial schools be required to pay taxes for the support of public schools? Why or why not?

6. Should public funds be used to help finance private or parochial schools? Why or why not?

7. What are the present sources of school revenue in your state? What changes, if any, would you suggest in those sources? Why?

8. To what extent do inequalities in educational opportunity exist among the states? What are the causes of these inequalities? To what extent do you believe that they should be eliminated? By what means? Is it good public policy to tax all states for the sake of the poor states? Why or why not? Should federal support of education in the states entail federal control? How much control, if any? Explain.

9. To what extent do inequalities in educational opportunity exist in your state? What are the causes of these inequalities? What are the social results of the inequalities? Would you favor complete state support of education? Should state support of education imply a larger amount of state control of education?

10. To what extent do you believe that there is waste in the administration of the schools? Mention a few examples of waste in the management of the schools.

11. What is meant by a unit cost in education? What are some examples

of unit costs? What uses may be made of unit cost data? Are we justified in spending more on certain subjects and departments than on others? Why or why not? Why do certain subjects and departments cost much more than others? Would it be possible for a school which spends only $50 per pupil annually to give as much education as a school which spends $75 or $100 per pupil? Explain.

12. To what extent, if any, would the elimination of music, art, and other so-called fads and frills result in financial savings to the schools? Explain. Is the cost of the schools determined primarily by the number of subjects offered or by the number of pupils enrolled? Explain.

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Chapter XV

SCHOOL-BUDGETARY PROCEDURES

DEFINITIONS AND FUNCTION OF A BUDGET

Definition. — Numerous and varied definitions for a budget have been given, but all of them agree that it is a systematized statement which forecasts the expenditures and the revenues of an individual, an organization, or an institution during a given period of time. As will be seen from Fig. 28, a well-formulated school budget consists of three parts: an educational plan, an expenditure plan, and a revenue plan. In school affairs the budget period is always a year. This year is known as the *fiscal* year, which is not necessarily the same as the school year; in most states, though, it is the same, and it should be the same everywhere. In most states the fiscal year extends from July 1 to June 30, and the dates of its beginning and ending are prescribed by statute; the advantages of these dates will be discussed in a later section of this chapter.

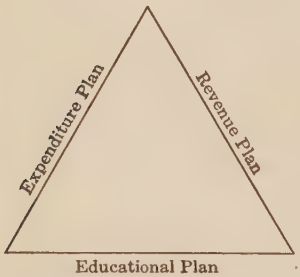


FIG. 28. — The Parts of a School Budget. (The sides of the triangle should have the same length in order that the budget may be integrated.)

Function. — The school budget is a financial plan for a specified period of time. It states in dollars and cents the philosophy and the policies of the school system. The way in which it is made affects the school system in all its phases. It determines the amount and the quality of personnel and of

materials, and it likewise determines the phases of the school program which are to be emphasized and also those which are not to be emphasized. The foundation of school-budgetary procedure should be, therefore, the educational needs of the community; only on this foundation can the superstructure of next year's revenues and expenditures be erected and only on it can long-time planning of revenues and expenditures be conducted. The specific purposes served by a school budget have been well summarized by Chris A. De Young in the following words:[1]

1. The budget is a servant of education.
2. It gives an overview.
3. It aids in analysis.
4. It develops cooperation within the school.
5. It stimulates confidence among the taxpayers.
6. It estimates the receipts.
7. It determines the tax levy.
8. It authorizes expenditures.
9. It aids in administering the school economically.
10. It improves accounting procedures.
11. It aids in extra-curricular activities.
12. It projects the school into the future.

Note

PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL-BUDGETARY PROCEDURE

Making the school budget is one of the most difficult as well as one of the most important tasks which the board of education and the superintendent of schools have to perform. In the foregoing remark there is no desire to convey the impression that the task is bafflingly technical, that it can be performed only by geniuses, and that it must be accompanied by endless travail. Such a characterization of the task would not be in accord with the facts. A knowledge of the principles of budget making, familiarity with educational values and processes, acquaintance with present and potential sources of revenue, a quantum of common sense, and willingness to work constitute the chief qualifications of any school employee

[1] *Budgeting in Public Schools*, pp. 9–14. Copyright by Doubleday, Doran and Company.

for performing the task efficiently; and those qualifications can be acquired by almost any person.

School-budgetary procedure, like ancient Gaul, is divided into three parts: (1) *preparation*, (2) *presentation* and *adoption*, and (3) *administration*. There are several principles under each of these three parts which must be followed if budgetary procedure is to be the best. Those principles are briefly discussed herewith.

1. Preparation of the Budget

Co-operation in preparation. — Since the superintendent is the chief executive officer of the school system and has, or should have, the responsibility for the operation of the school system, he should be given the responsibility of performing that task which has much to do with determining the efficiency of the school system; that task is preparing the budget. This recommendation does not imply that the superintendent must in person collect and organize all the data necessary for the preparation of the budget. Because of the many other duties of the superintendent, especially in the larger school systems, much of the work of budget preparation will need to be delegated by him to the clerk, the business manager, or other school official or officials.

Of course, the board of education has, and should have, the responsibility of approving, amending, or disapproving the budget which the superintendent of schools prepares and presents. The superintendent probably knows — he should know — more about the needs of the schools in all their parts than any other person. The members of the board of education, because of their longer residence in the community, probably know more about the ability and the willingness of the community to finance the schools than any other persons. There must, therefore, be co-operation between the superintendent and the board in preparing the school budget. In all its steps, budget preparation presents another opportunity for the use of democratic procedures.

In preparing the budget, the superintendent should seek the co-operation of other school employees. For example, he should call upon the principal of each school and the heads of the various divisions, bureaus, or departments for a statement of the needs of the individual school or department. In the larger school systems it is helpful to have a special form for securing this information.[1] Who knows more about the needs of a school or a department than the person in charge of such school or department? In fact, there would be advantages in securing the co-operation of classroom teachers, janitors, bus drivers, and other employees in making the school budget. If it be argued that such employees are not familiar with the principles and the technique of budget making, and are therefore incompetent to assist in this important work, the reply is that in many school systems they *are* assisting in it and many more should be trained to assist in it. For the superintendent to call upon his co-workers for assistance in budget making has two advantages. In the first place, it secures the necessary information upon which the preparation of a good budget is dependent. In the second place, it gives the employees who help to prepare the budget a feeling of partnership in and responsibility for this important task, all of which contributes to their *esprit de corps* and professional growth.

Bases for expenditure estimates. — The most difficult phase of the task of preparing a budget for a school department, a school, or a school system is to estimate the necessary expenditures for the year for which the budget is being prepared. Such estimates can only be made by keeping in mind the educational program which has been planned and the amount of revenue available; in other words, the educational plan, the expenditure plan, and the revenue plan must be co-ordinated and integrated. In estimating the expenditures, school officials will be assisted by keeping in mind the five following factors:

[1] A suggested form for this purpose may be found in the author's *The Business Administration of a School System*, p. 49.

1. Expenditures for the present year and the preceding one, two, or three years should be kept in mind. The best single basis on which to prophesy the future is the past. "The lamp of experience," Patrick Henry once said, "is the best guide to the future."

2. Changes in the cost of various services, materials, and commodities should be known. Thus, if the price of coal has increased 20 per cent since the budget for the present year was made, this increase would need to be kept in mind in making the budget for the next year. Decreases in prices should be similarly considered in making estimates.

3. The size of the school enrollment also should be considered. If there has been an increase in enrollment, such increase will probably necessitate an enlarged teaching and other personnel, and additional housing facilities, equipment, and supplies.

4. Consideration should be given to whether any improvements calculated to secure a better educational product are desirable or necessary.

5. Finally, there should be a critical examination of expenditures made during the current year to ascertain any items which may be eliminated from the budget without crippling the efficiency of the schools. The fact that an item has always been in the budget does not necessarily mean that the item should remain. It is possible that the need for a certain service or material has passed away, and that the money expended in providing such service or material could be saved or could be used on some other item with greater efficiency.

Budget analysis. — The budget should be inclusive and analyzed in much detail. Of course, a budget could be only a lump sum — a mere guess — but such a budget would be unscientific and its requests might be too large or too small. Every item for which an expenditure is contemplated, even though the item amounts to only a few dollars, should be listed at some time in preparing the budget. In many school systems a minutely analyzed budget is prepared for every school building and every school department, and every proposed expenditure is listed, even though some of them amount to only a few cents.

In order that the budget may be seen in clearer perspective, in presenting it to the board of education, the budget commission, the council, the mayor, or other adopting authority, the smaller items may be segregated under larger heads, such as are illustrated in Fig. 29. However, the detailed informa-

tion recommended in the previous paragraph should be available for the perusal of the adopting authority if it is needed and requested. Only by securing detailed information can the budget be accurately prepared; and only by means of such information can it be defended before the adopting authority.

A proportioned budget. — The budget should be well proportioned — that is, no phase of the work of the school system should receive more or less than it needs; "Peter should not be robbed to pay Paul." Since instructional service is the most important item in schoolwork, as large a percentage of the school funds as possible should be given to it, without, of course, taking money from other services, which might result in the crippling of instruction. If a school system is using a large percentage of its budget for operation of plant, pupil transportation, and other non-instructional services, it should ask itself why; and probably the asking of the question will enable the system to take something from non-instructional services and give it to the instructional services.

An excellent procedure by which school officials may make themselves better acquainted with their budgets is to compare them with those of similar school systems — similar in size, climate, and other matters which give rise to educational problems. It would be of great assistance to school-budget making if financial accounting procedures made expenditure data readily available and absolutely reliable. Unfortunately, at present, most school-financial data of a comparative nature must be accepted with a grain of salt. It would be helpful to school officials in preparing their budgets if there were some agency in every state — for example, the state department of education or the state university — which could collect and disseminate each year, just before budget-making time, accurate data of the type indicated. Only a few states make such data available even in the annual or biennial reports of the chief state school official.

National and state norms with which comparisons may be

made are published and made available every two years by the United States Office of Education. These appear in a bulletin entitled *Statistics of State Systems;* unfortunately, however, this bulletin usually appears a year or two late. The national norms for the most recent year are as follows:

Function	*Per cent of Total Current Expenditure*
General control	4.1
Instruction	73.3
Operation of plant	10.2
Maintenance of plant	3.9
Co-ordinate activities and auxiliary agencies	5.9
Fixed charges	2.6
	100.0

Of course, the modal practice is not necessarily the best, nor is the majority always right. Best practice is often found in a deviation from the mode or average. School officials and employees should keep in mind local needs, and these needs may be so different that, compared with the budgets of other school systems, an unusually large percentage of the budget for a particular item would be justifiable. For example, the smaller school systems spend a larger percentage of their budgets for general control and a smaller percentage for instruction than the larger systems. The rural schools usually have transportation programs which require them to spend a larger percentage for co-ordinate activities and auxiliary agencies than the city schools. Because of the colder climate the schools of the Northern states must spend a larger percentage of their budgets for operation of plant than those of the Southern states.

Padded budgets. — In preparing their budget, some school officials operate on the belief that the persons who adopt the budget will cut it a certain amount anyway, so they proceed to pad it for the amount which they believe will be cut. Such officials are merely guessers and traders. They attempt to justify budget padding with the argument that it

is administratively expedient; they believe, or claim to believe, that the practice is necessary in order to secure funds.

Padding the budget is not a desirable practice. On the one hand, the practice makes the person who prepares the budget attempt to prophesy how much the adopter will slash it; on the other hand, it makes the adopter of the budget try to guess how much the person who has prepared it has padded it. Padding the budget engenders suspicion and breeds distrust. It is a species of dishonesty. It is undemocratic. Although the *ends* which he has in mind are of transcending importance, the school administrator should not be guilty of using questionable *means* to attain those ends; politicians, not statesmen, practice questionable arts. School officials should cut their budgets to the bone, then be ready to take off their coats and fight for them if necessary. If they should lose in this fight, it may mean a temporary hardship for the schools; however, they will be absolved from all blame and such blame must be borne by the adopters of the budget.

Listing of revenues. — Many school officials believe that their task in budgetary procedure is only to make requests; they do not deem that it is their obligation even to suggest the sources of revenue. A budget is not complete unless it contains a list of the anticipated revenues which will finance the proposed expenditure program. School officials should feel the responsibility of arranging for, or suggesting, the sources from which the money to finance the schools is to come; such responsibility will temper their requests and tend to make them proceed on a businesslike basis. The budget form shown in Fig. 29 gives suggestions on how prospective receipts may be listed. It should be kept in mind, however, that the sources of revenue are not the same in every state, nor are they entirely the same in all communities of the same state.

Time of making. — Since the budget is a financial plan for the ensuing school year, it should be prepared as close as possible to the beginning of the fiscal year which it is to

serve. If it is made too long before the beginning of the fiscal year, the task of estimating school needs will, of course, be more difficult. On the other hand, if it is not made several weeks before the fiscal year begins, there will not be sufficient time for conducting the necessary conferences and hearings and for making needed revisions; moreover, if the period is too short, contracts will have been made and obligations incurred before the budget has been adopted. Budget-making authorities are agreed that the practice of incurring obligations and of making expenditures before the budget has been adopted is undesirable.

The authorities are agreed that the budget should be prepared and adopted from sixty to ninety days before the beginning of the fiscal year to which it applies. Consonant with this belief, most states have enacted laws which prescribe that the budget shall be prepared and adopted at least sixty days before the beginning of the fiscal year which it is to serve.

Regarding when the fiscal year begins, there are various dates, such as July 1, January 1, August 1, September 1, October 1, and sometime in June or July.[1] July 1 seems to be the best beginning date, and most states have adopted it. The advantages of that date are here summarized:

1. Making the fiscal year extend from July 1 to June 30 would make the school year and the fiscal year coterminous, which would be advantageous. When the fiscal year and the school year are *not* the same, the problems of budget making are multiplied, because of the fact that the school year is in *two* fiscal years.

2. If the fiscal year were uniform in all school districts, school financial data would be more comparable, and therefore more useful. In a previous paragraph of this chapter some uses which school officials may make of comparable data were indicated. At present it is difficult to secure comparable financial data because some school systems report from January 1 to December 31, others from July 1 to June 30, and still others report for other dates.

School-budget preparation is, however, a never-ending task. No sooner has the budget for one year been prepared

[1] W. C. Reusser and R. R. Outsen, *Budgetary Procedure*, p. 5.

Name of School System ----------
Date ----------

I. Receipts

Items	Receipts Last Fiscal Year (1940)	Receipts This Fiscal Year (1941)	Estimated Receipts Next Fiscal Year (1942)
1. Unencumbered balance			
2. Local-tax levy			
3. County-tax levy			
4. State-tax levy			
5. Section 16 and other permanent funds			
6. Depository interest			
7. Nonresident tuition			
8. Evening-school tuition			
9. Rentals			
10. Sale of sites, buildings, or supplies			
11. State aid for Smith-Hughes			
12. State aid for deaf			
13. State aid for blind			
14. State aid for crippled			
15.			
16.			
17.			
18.			
19.			
20.			
21.			
22.			
23. Miscellaneous			
Total			

	1940	1941	1942
Tax Duplicate	----------	----------	----------
Tax Rate for Schools	----------	----------	----------

II. Expenditures

Items	Expenditures for 1940	Appropriation for 1941	Estimated Needs for 1942	Increase or Decrease of 1942 Request over 1941		Percentage Increase or Decrease
				Increase	Decrease	
1. General Control						
a. Board of education — secretary's office						
b. School census						
c. Operation and maintenance of general offices						
d. Salary of superintendent of schools						
e. Salary of superintendent's clerk						
f. Enforcement of compulsory-education laws						
g. Expense fund						
h.						
i.						
j. Other expenses of general control						
Total expenses of general control						

FIG. 29. — Suggested Form for the Final School Budget.

II. Expenditures (*Continued*)

Items	*Expenditures for 1940*	*Appropriation for 1941*	*Estimated Needs for 1942*	*Increase or Decrease of 1942 Request over 1941*		*Percentage Increase or Decrease*
				Increase	*Decrease*	
2. Instruction						
a. Salaries of supervisors of grades and subjects						
b. Other expenses of supervisors						
c. Salaries of principals and their clerks						
d. Other expenses of principals						
e. Salaries of teachers						
f. Textbooks						
g. Stationery and supplies used in instruction						
h. Commencement						
i.						
j.						
k. Other expenses of instruction						
Total expenses of instruction						
3. Operation of School Plant						
a. Wages of janitors and similar employees						
b. Fuel						
c. Light and power						
d. Janitor's supplies						
e. Care of grounds						
f.						
g.						
h. Other expenses of operation of plant						
Total expenses of operation of plant						
4. Maintenance of School Plant						
a. Repair of buildings						
b. Repair of grounds						
c. Repair and replacement of equipment						
d.						
e.						
f. Other expenses of maintenance of plant						
Total expenses of maintenance of plant						
5. Fixed Charges						
a. Teachers' retirement						
b. Workmen's compensation						
c. Building insurance						
d. Rent						
e.						
f.						
g. Other fixed charges						
Total expenses of fixed charges						
6. Debt Service						
a. Payment of bonds (direct)						

FIG. 29. — (*Continued*).

II. Expenditures (*Continued*)

Items	*Expenditures for 1940*	*Appropriation for 1941*	*Estimated Needs for 1942*	*Increase or Decrease of 1942 Request over 1941*		*Percentage Increase or Decrease*
				Increase	*Decrease*	
b. Payment of bonds (sinking fund)						
c. Redemption of short-term loans						
d. Interest on bonds						
e. Interest on short-term loans						
f.						
g.						
h. Other expenses of debt service						
Total expenses of debt service						
7. Capital Outlay						
a. Land						
b. New buildings						
c. Alteration of old buildings						
d. Equipment of new buildings and grounds						
e. Equipment of old buildings exclusive of replacement						
f.						
g.						
h. Other outlay expenses						
Total expenses of outlays						
8. Auxiliary Agencies and Miscellaneous						
a. Libraries						
(1) Salaries						
(2) Books						
(3) Other expenses						
b. Promotion of health						
(1) Salaries						
(2) Other expenses						
c. Transportation of pupils						
(1) Salaries						
(2) Other expenses						
d. Board and lodging of pupils in lieu of transportation						
e. Provision for lunches						
f. Recreation and playgrounds						
g. Social centers						
h. Indigent children						
i. Pupil tuition						
j.						
k.						
l. Other expenses of auxiliary agencies, etc.						
Total expenses of auxiliary agencies, etc.						
Grand total						

FIG. 29. — (*Continued*).

and adopted than that for the next year must be begun. It has already been remarked that a good budget is dependent upon ample and necessary information. Such information must be collected throughout the school year. Educational and financial plans for the school system must always be under consideration. Many superintendents have found it helpful to keep a special file in which all information and suggestions concerning the budget are placed. Such a file tends to assure that no item of information and no suggestion will be forgotten when the task of compiling the budget is imminent.

2. Presentation and Adoption of the Budget

Necessity for proper presentation. — It is the obligation of those persons who prepare the budget to present it in such a manner to the officials who have the responsibility of adopting that it will be adopted with as little change as possible. Unless the laws of the state prescribe the use of a particular budget form, a form similar to that shown in Fig. 29 may be used in presenting the budget to the board of education or other adopting authorities; a form similar to this is prescribed in many states. One index of the efficiency of the superintendent of schools is the extent to which he can secure the adoption of the budget with as little change as possible. If the budget has been well formulated and clearly presented, its chances for adoption will be greatly enhanced. In considering the budget the board of education or other adopting authority should not eliminate, or decrease, any item until the superintendent of schools has been consulted. Assuming that the budget has been well prepared, two further principles should be kept in mind in presenting it; those principles are discussed herewith.

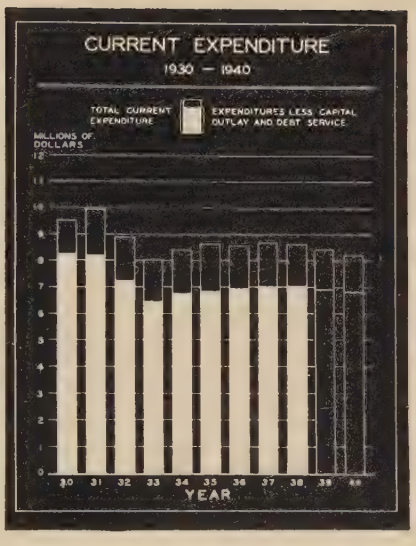
Justification of requests. — Persons who formulate and present the budget should be expected to justify every request. If an increased appropriation is requested for a certain item, an explanation for the increase should be given. If the budget has been based on detailed information, such as was recom-

CURRENT EXPENDITURE

On the seven preceding pages there have been presented analyses of the major subdivisions under Current Expenditure. To these may be added Debt Service, which is a separate section of the Board's appropriation made directly to the Comptroller of the City, and administered by him.

Current Expenditure is apart and distinct from capital expenditure for such permanent improvements as buildings, sites, and major equipment. It includes, however, capital outlay for equipment of limited life, such as furniture, laboratory apparatus, and motor vehicles. The chart on this page indicates the course of Current Expenditure in each year since 1930. It shows clearly that the peak of nearly $10,000,000 was reached in 1931, and that in the past four years there has been a gradual though interrupted decrease toward an $8,000,000 level.

Current expenditure apart from debt service has dropped by $1,689,000 from its 1931 high of eight and a half millions.



1931 **CURRENT EXPENDITURE** **1940**

In Thousands of Dollars

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	†1939	*1940
1. Administration	246	220	210	218	221	209	205	202	201	200
2. Instruction	5690	5322	5014	5097	5122	5160	5224	5236	5140	5070
3. Auxiliary Services	477	271	84	124	103	119	134	38	38	40
4. Operation	880	842	635	714	789	788	801	871	844	800
5. Maintenance	424	211	156	239	219	232	233	232	242	205
6. Fixed Charges	444	394	371	395	394	434	433	438	443	432
7. Capital Outlay	348	221	70	137	81	153	168	181	142	73
TOTAL	8509	7481	6540	6924	6929	7095	7198	7198	7050	6820
8. Debt Service	1480	1411	1494	1489	1708	1473	1497	1449	1349	1368
GRAND TOTAL	9989	8892	8034	8413	8637	8568	8695	8647	8399	8188

1931 **CURRENT EXPENDITURE** **1940**

Percentage Distribution

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	†1939	*1940
1. Administration	2.89	2.94	3.21	3.15	3.19	2.94	2.85	2.81	2.85	2.93
2. Instruction	66.87	71.14	76.67	73.61	73.92	72.73	72.58	72.74	72.91	74.34
3. Auxiliary Services	5.61	3.62	1.28	1.79	1.49	1.68	1.86	.53	.54	.59
4. Operation	10.34	11.26	9.71	10.31	11.39	11.11	11.13	12.10	11.97	11.73
5. Maintenance	4.98	2.82	2.39	3.45	3.16	3.27	3.24	3.22	3.43	3.01
6. Fixed Charges	5.22	5.27	5.67	5.71	5.68	6.12	6.01	6.09	6.28	6.33
7. Capital Outlay	4.09	2.95	1.07	1.98	1.17	2.15	2.33	2.51	2.02	1.07

†Partially estimated.
*Budget.

Fig. 30. — Sample Page from the 1940 School Budget of Rochester, New York.

mended in previous paragraphs, and if it has been systematically analyzed and organized, such justification can be much more easily made. Lump-sum budgets are always difficult to explain and justify.

It is a good plan to justify most of the budget in writing. The budget should be carefully analyzed, and a written justification be made for each large item, particularly when an increased appropriation for the item is requested. Of course, the written justification should be supplemented with such oral justification as is deemed necessary.

Ample publicity. — Ample publicity should be given the budget. Since the manner in which the budget is made affects the public purse and largely determines the efficiency of the schools, the public should be interested in it. It is, however, an unfortunate commentary that the public is not always interested in this important governmental function; this lack of interest is shown especially by the small attendance at public budget hearings which are required by statute in several states. Publicity for the budget is recommended because a frank and clear statement of the needs of the school will tend to disarm criticism in advance and to secure public support for the budget. With an informed and a sympathetic public supporting a budget, its adoption can hardly fail. The following steps may be taken to provide the public with information on the budget:

1. Give it information through the newspapers.

2. Hold a public hearing on it. Such a hearing is prescribed by law in many states.

3. Publish and disseminate a bulletin on it. Rochester, New York, publishes an illustrated bulletin every year and sends a copy to every home represented in the schools; a page from the 24-page bulletin for 1940 is shown in Fig. 30.

4. Give addresses on it before educational and civic groups such as teachers, parent-teacher associations, labor organizations, granges, farm bureaus, and chambers of commerce.

3. Administration of the Budget

Following the budget. — Unless the budget is followed as closely as possible, there is small purpose in making it. The budget is a financial plan, and a plan is made to follow. This does not mean, however, that the budget should be followed blindly and slavishly, irrespective of needs. In its best form a budget can be regarded only as a prophecy or an estimate; it can never be endowed with absolute certainty because of the vagaries of the future. Although all prospective revenues and expenditures may have been calculated with meticulous care, unforeseen circumstances may occur which will necessitate a revision of the budget. For example, revenue may be less than anticipated because of an underestimation of the amount of delinquent taxes and an overestimation of the size of the tax duplicate, the amount of state aid, or the amount of revenue from some other source. Expenditures may be greater than anticipated because a tornado, a flood, a fire, an unusually cold winter, or an unexpectedly large increase in school enrollment may require an unexpected expenditure of funds for a particular item or items. Such extra expenditure of funds or overestimation of income can be met in one of two ways — either by borrowing money or by transferring funds from one appropriation item to another. The laws of most states permit both practices. Most laws, however, will not permit the transfer of funds from one item to another, if the funds have already been mortgaged. Some states also will not permit borrowing for current expenses.

To take care of emergencies such as have just been mentioned, many boards of education carry in every budget an emergency fund amounting from 5 to 10 per cent of the total budget. The advantage of such a fund is obvious. The disadvantages are: first, the fund tends to make school officials estimate less carefully and, second, it may lead to extravagances. In elaboration of the second disadvantage it cannot be gainsaid that an unexpended balance at the close of a school

year "burns the fingers" of some school officials, and tempts them to spend the balance for things which are not necessary.

Balancing expenditures and appropriations. — That budget is best whose income and expenditures balance at the end of the year, and such a budget should be striven for by every board of education and its employees. Every school system should operate within its income. Borrowing money to pay the current expenses of a school system is as bad a practice as for an individual to borrow money to purchase food, clothing, and shelter. Financial disaster is the inevitable result of continuous borrowing to meet current expenses. Although an unexpended balance is not sanctioned, a balance is much better than a deficit.

Every school system should have a financial-accounting system which would enable school officials to know at any moment how much money remains in each appropriation item. The budget forms and the financial-accounting forms should work hand in glove, and many states have taken steps to secure this co-ordination. The accounting system should show not merely the amount expended from each appropriation item, but should show as well all encumbrances upon each appropriation item. Chapter XXVIII of this book recommends that every board of education require from its executive officers a monthly statement showing the status of the finances of the school system. The purpose of such a statement and how to prepare it are discussed in those pages and more need not be said about these matters here. In some states the statutes make school officials personally liable for expenditures which exceed appropriations and revenues.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Criticize the lump-sum type of budget which many public officials employ. To what degree do you believe the budget should be analyzed? Why?

2. Do you believe that there would ever be justification for padding the school budget? If so, when and why?

3. What steps might feasibly be taken to get the public acquainted with the budget? Is such acquaintance worth attempting to secure? Explain.

4. What advantages, if any, would there be in school officials using standardized and uniform budget forms? Why should the budget forms and the financial-accounting forms work hand in glove?

5. Compare the relative functions of the superintendent and the business manager in budget making? Which of these officials should play the leading rôle? Why?

6. Outline a plan which the superintendent might follow in securing the co-operation of principals and other division heads in budget making.

7. What steps should school officials take to ascertain whether their budget is proportioned? Where might comparative data be procured?

8. In preparing the expenditure part of the budget would you favor showing the *necessities* in one column and the *desirables* in another column? Why or why not?

9. A few states have enacted laws making it illegal for public officials to go in debt for expenses other than capital outlays. Do you favor such a law? Why or why not?

10. Under the three steps of budget making, what further principles, if any, can you suggest as worth following?

11. What are the present sources of school revenue in your state? What potential sources are there? What steps should be taken to see that all moneys to which the schools are entitled from the following sources come into the school coffers: interest on school funds, income from the permanent school fund, general state aid, state aid for special projects, tuition from non-resident students, and delinquent taxes?

12. What bases should school officials keep in mind in attempting to estimate the amount of delinquent taxes? Why should such an estimate be made when the budget is being prepared?

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Chapter XVI

SCHOOL-SUPPLY ADMINISTRATION

THE SCHOOL-SUPPLY PROBLEM

Every phase of the work of the school requires the use of appropriate supplies. There are, of course, dozens of types of school supplies, some of the chief ones being fuel, electric current, stationery, janitorial supplies, laboratory materials, and shop supplies. In the typical school system approximately 10 per cent of the current funds goes for supplies. The problem here confronting school officials and employees is that of seeing that all supplies are properly selected, purchased, distributed, and used. This chapter suggests procedures for an efficient handling of these matters.

PURCHASE OF SUPPLIES

Kind to purchase. — A school system should use as few kinds of supplies for a particular service, grade, or subject as possible. For example, there should be only one or a few kinds of penmanship paper, of blackboard crayons, of ink, and of other supplies for a particular grade or department. An adoption of this practice will enable school systems to purchase their supplies in larger quantities, thus making possible a considerable saving. This saving comes because the *quantity* of any particular item of material, rather than an assortment of items, is the basis on which vendors quote prices. Moreover, the use of the practice suggested will make the administration of supplies much easier; for example, it is much easier to purchase, to requisition, to deliver, and to

account for only one type of penmanship paper than to perform these duties for several types of paper. Carrying standardization too far, however, often results in handicapping service, and that should never be done. If, for example, the blackboards of the various schools will not permit the same kind of chalk to be used, as many kinds of chalk as are necessary should be purchased. Moreover, a supply item which may be appropriate for a certain grade or subject may not be suitable for another grade or subject.

Every school system, particularly if it is fairly large, should maintain a standard supply list. This record should give the name of each supply item used in the school system, and should also indicate the subjects, the grades, and the departments for which or in which the item is used. The supply list is much more usable if it is divided into grades and departments; thus, it is helpful to have a supply list for each of the elementary school grades, and other lists for special departments such as health, industrial arts, special education, office, library, janitorial, and home economics. It will be necessary to keep the list up to date as changes in the kind of supplies are made from year to year. A supply which was at one time the best is not always the best; the type and the quality of supplies change from year to year the same as school needs change.

The quality of supplies for a particular service should be adequate to meet the demands of the service; but, since most supplies are used only once, the quality does not need to be higher than that. For example, since penmanship paper is usually destroyed as soon as the penmanship lesson is finished, the cheapest paper that will stand the test should be purchased. If the retention of the material for any length of time is required, a better quality should be provided. Unfortunately little experimentation has yet been conducted to ascertain the best kind of supply for a particular service; here is another fruitful field for research and investigation — in fact, such efforts should be continuous.

The tendency in progressive school systems is to appoint a committee, or committees, to assist in determining the kind of supplies to be selected. On such committee, or committees, there should be representatives of the employees who are to use the supplies. Thus, on the committee for instructional supplies there should be representatives of the purchasing department,[1] of the teachers, of the principals, and of the supervisors; likewise on the committee for janitorial supplies there should be representatives of the janitors, of the employees of the purchasing department, and possibly of the employees of other departments. Who should know more about the kind of supplies to be selected than those persons who use, or direct the use of, such supplies? Employees frequently and justly complain about being compelled to use supplies which they have had no voice in selecting.

Whether committees are organized or not, when supplies are being purchased there should be co-operation between the purchasing department and the employees who will use the supplies. Thus, teachers should be consulted regarding the kind of supplies to be used under their direction, and janitors should have much to say about the type of supplies furnished them. Storerooms, basements, and attics of school buildings are frequently cluttered with materials which have been selected by purchasing departments, yet which could not be used. On the other hand, the practice which obtains in some school systems of permitting each employee to order from the local merchant any material which he wants, without consulting school officials, should be discontinued.

Amount to purchase. — The amount of supplies to be purchased for the year should not be determined by snap judgment or a lump-sum estimate, but should be based on accurate information secured from the various schools and departments. One plan of estimating the total amount of

[1] The larger school systems, for example, those spending several thousand dollars each year for supplies, usually have a supply department headed by a purchasing agent or supply clerk.

supplies needed is to send an estimate blank to each principal and head of department, a few weeks before the supply estimate for the whole school system is made up.[1] Figure 31

Name of school or department_____
Enrollment_____

Item Number	Description of Item	Amount Delivered for This Year	Probable Surplus at End of This Year	Probable Shortage This Year	Changes in Need for Next Year

Approved by_____
Prin. or head of dept.
Date_____,19____

Fig. 31. — Annual Supply Estimate for a School or a Department.

shows an estimate blank which principals and heads of departments may use in stating their supply needs for the ensuing year. In estimating the supplies needed, the quantity used

[1] If the amount of instructional supplies is standardized on a pupil-unit basis such as is used in many school systems, the only information that will need to be reported is the number of pupils in each grade and department.

during the previous year should be kept in mind. In addition to this, arrangements must be made for any increase or decrease in enrollment and for the work of any new departments; moreover, any possible economies in the use of supplies should be kept in mind.

It will not always be possible to give to each school or department all the supplies requested by it. If some school employees were given all the supplies which they request, a bond issue would be necessary; some school employees are insatiable. The committees which were recommended above for assisting in determining the kind and quality of supplies should have much to say about the *amount* of supplies to be apportioned to each pupil, teacher, or school. If there are not enough supplies, the efficiency of the school will suffer; if there are too many, waste will result.

The amount of supplies to be purchased at one time will depend upon several factors, such as the amount of the budget available for supplies, the amount of storage space available, and the condition of the supply market. Generally speaking, since larger orders secure cheaper prices, sufficient supplies should, in most school systems, be ordered for one school year. In addition to effecting economies in prices, the practice of ordering a sufficient amount for the entire school year saves the time of school officials in ordering, receiving, checking, delivering, and paying for the supplies. Usually, however, no more supplies than are necessary for the year should be ordered; even the cheaper price which comes from quantity purchasing, and the prospect of rising prices during ensuing months, should not tempt public officials to purchase more than a year's supply. It is not good business to carry over a supply from one school year to the next, and the only way this can be avoided is by making an accurate estimate of supply needs. The suggestion regarding the purchasing in large quantities applies particularly to the smaller school systems. The larger school systems, which use large quantities of supplies, often find it as cheap and otherwise as advan-

tageous to order supplies several times during the school year. Beyond a given quantity of a certain item, vendors give little, if any, reduction in price.

Co-operative purchasing. — Small and neighboring school systems should consider the feasibility of purchasing their supplies co-operatively. It is usually practicable for the rural school districts of a county, especially where the distance factor is not too great, to join together in placing one order for all the rural schools of the county. The counties which have tried co-operative purchasing have usually found that large economies in prices may be effected by the practice.[1] In California the advantages of co-operative purchasing among the rural schools of a county have been so clearly demonstrated by several counties that since 1928 legislation has been in force which requires all rural districts of a county to purchase their supplies co-operatively through the office of the county superintendent of schools, or through a county purchasing agent. In that state county boards of education are required to list as standard school supplies and equipment all material which can be advantageously purchased in quantity and co-operatively. Similar laws should be enacted in all states which do not have the county unit. In the county unit, of course, the county board of education purchases for the whole county.

The data of Table VII, show the large economies which the rural districts of one California county (San Luis Obispo) effected through the introduction of co-operative purchasing of supplies. The superintendent of schools of that county recently estimated that at least $5000 is saved annually in the county by co-operative purchasing.[2] If that much is saved in one county, the saving in one state, or in the whole United States, would be colossal.

[1] For a summary of such studies, see C. P. Young, "Cooperative Buying for Schools," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1936), Vol. XCIII, pp. 28, 71.

[2] *Thirty-Second Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction*, State of California, for the school years ending June 30, 1925, and June 30, 1926, pp. 29–30.

In an investigation which he made in Fresno County, California, A. H. Shipley found that central or co-operative purchasing of school supplies effected an average saving of approximately 50 per cent. Shipley procured data on 376 random-selected purchases which were distributed over 30 supply items. His study showed that in 1.33 per cent of the 376 purchases the prices slightly favored district buying. On

TABLE VII. — A COMPARISON OF SCHOOL-SUPPLY PRICES UNDER THE CO-OPERATIVE PURCHASING PLAN WITH PRICES UNDER THE NON-CO-OPERATIVE PLAN

Supply Items	*Prices Paid by Individual Districts under Old Plan*	*Co-operative Bids for First Year*	*Co-operative Bids for Second Year*
Pens, per gross	$1.50	$ .75	$ .50
Ink, per quart	1.50	1.00	.60
Paste, per pint	1.00	.65	.45
Manila drawing paper, per ream	3.25	.90	.63
Legal-cap paper, per ream	5.40	2.16	1.40
Blotters, per gross	1.00	.35	.27
Cut news, per pound	.19	.05	.04¾

the contrary, in 59.31 per cent of the purchases, district buying was from 10 to 100 per cent higher than central buying; in 32.71 per cent of the purchases, district buying was from 100 to 200 per cent higher; in 3.98 per cent, it was from 200 to 300 per cent higher; in 2.39 per cent, from 300 to 400 per cent higher; and in .26 per cent, more than 400 per cent higher.[1]

Not only has there been a tendency for neighboring school districts to co-operate in purchasing supplies, but school systems and municipal and county governments have occasionally purchased certain supplies co-operatively. Studies have shown that this arrangement saves money for all units

[1] "A Comparison of Prices Paid by Central Purchasing and Individual District Buying for School Supplies," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1929), Vol. LXXIX, p. 144.

of government and suggest that the practice be further experimented with.[1]

Time to purchase. — Efficiently managed industrial concerns are accustomed to study the supply market and to place the orders for their supplies during the seasons when prices are the lowest. School systems would save much money on their supplies by following the example of industries. Since coal, which is the largest supply item used by the schools, is usually from 5 to 15 per cent cheaper during the months from April to September, the orders for it should be placed during those months rather than during the fall and the winter months; the extent of demand for an article largely determines the price asked for the article. H. F. Clark has pointed out that educational supplies — that is, such items as penmanship paper, drawing paper, crayons, and ink — are cheapest during April and May.[2] The same practice which has been recommended for fuel and educational supplies should be followed with other supplies. R. B. Taylor recommends that school systems adopt a *time schedule* such as the following to guide them in the purchasing of their supplies, the particular dates to be adapted, of course, to the needs of the local situation:[3]

January 1 — Start preparation of annual requisition for supplies.
January 20 — Submit annual-requisition estimate to principals for correction or approval.
February 5 — Annual requisition to be returned to the assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs.
February 5 to March 15 — Preparation of bid forms.
March 15 — Bid forms mailed to bidders.
April 15 — Bids must be submitted by this date.
April 15 to May 15 — Tabulation of bids and examination of samples.
May 15 — Recommendation to purchase submitted to board of education.
June 1 — All purchase orders to be mailed before this date.

[1] C. E. Lex, "Coordinating the Purchases of City, County, and School Board," *American School Board Journal* (February, 1933), Vol. LXXXVI, pp. 24, 65.

[2] "Index Numbers for School Supply Prices," *Nation's Schools* (September, 1928), Vol. II, pp. 46–48.

[3] *Principles of School Supply Management*, pp. 90–91. Copyright by Teachers College, Columbia University.

Securing bids. — The laws of most states stipulate that supplies costing more than a certain sum, for example, $200 or $300, must be purchased through bids. Whether the laws require it or not, it is a good plan to secure bids on all supplies costing more than this amount. Even in the case of supplies costing less than that amount, before an order is placed, it is advisable to make inquiry of several firms regarding their prices. The letting of contracts on the basis of bids usually saves money for the school system; moreover, the practice protects school officials from the criticism of partiality and the cry of graft. It happens occasionally, though, that supplies must be secured immediately without going through the formality of advertising for bids; state legislation and rules and regulations of the board of education should not hinder the meeting of these emergencies; of course, foresight will reduce such emergencies to a minimum.

In order that as many excellent bids as possible may be secured, the letting of the contract for school supplies should be adequately advertised. In many states these matters are prescribed by statute. The most commonly employed mediums and ways of advertising are the following: local newspapers and trade journals, advertisements posted in public places, and circular letters. School officials who have tried the circular-letter method of advertising insist that it is the best method they have yet found. A copy of such circular letter should be sent to all supply houses which might be interested in bidding on the supplies to be purchased; it is helpful to keep an up-to-date list of supply firms to which such letters, specifications, and bidders' blanks may be sent.

In order that supply firms may more easily submit bids, and that they may know exactly the nature of the items on which they are bidding, specifications for each supply item should be designed by every school system and given to each prospective bidder. These specifications should indicate such details as the size, the quality, the brand, and the quantity of each material needed. Wherever possible, a sample of the

item desired should be submitted to the dealer together with the specifications; samples may, of course, be easily furnished in the case of such supplies as paper, chalk, and pencils. With the consent of the purchaser, firms should be permitted to substitute items of as good, or better, quality than the specifications indicate. It is, of course, the function of school officials to decide whether the substitutes are as good as the items prescribed in the specifications; bidders wishing to make substitutes should always be required to submit samples.

A blank which each bidder must use in submitting his bid should be provided; this blank should be made a part of the specifications. A portion of such a blank is shown below. It is recommended that the specifications and the bidder's blank be made in duplicate so that the bidder may retain one of the copies.

A SAMPLE BIDDER'S BLANK

Bid of_____

SCHEDULE OF ESTIMATED SUPPLIES

required by the School Department of the City of Chico, California, for the period of one year, commencing July 1,_____and ending June 30, _____, the Board of Education reserving the right to use greater or less quantities than below stated. All goods are to be delivered at such times, in such quantities, and in such places (f.o.b.) Chico, as may be required by the Board of Education.

Important

All bids shall be clearly and distinctly written, without any erasure or interlineations, and the total amount of bid on each article must be carried out. If any bid shall have any erasure or interlineation, it will not be received or considered.

All attached special supply or laboratory lists are hereby made a part hereof.

Where aggregate amount of bid is $500.00 or over, a certified check covering 10 per cent of the total must accompany the bid.

Note: This list specifies standards or grades of articles desired. Equivalent material of other manufacture may be submitted but will be accepted for

delivery by the Board's regular purchasing committee only after approval of sample submitted.

Bids must be filed by five o'clock P.M.----------

To the Honorable,

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF CHICO

Gentlemen:

In compliance with your request, we hereby promise and agree to execute the contract specified herein to the satisfaction of and under the supervision of the Board of Education of the City of Chico, at the prices given below

Signature of bidder,----------

Address,----------

Janitors' Supplies

Cleaning Supplies	Amount Required	Price	Total
Ammonia, quart bottles			
"Bon Ami," bars			
Lye, Babbitt's 1-pound can			
"Gold Dust," 2½-pound pkg.			
"Sani-Flush," small cans			
Stove blacking, "Black Satin"			
"Dutch Cleanser," small cans			
Cheesecloth, yards			
Dustless duster cloths			
"O'Cedar" dusters, 8-inch ring			
"O'Cedar" oil, small bottles			
Dustpans, 9 × 13, extra heavy			
"Calol Liquid Gloss," floor dressing			
West's "Coro Noleum" disinfectant			
"O Bug O" disinfectant			
"Ideal" 12-inch rubber window cleaners			

The rules governing the bidding should be sufficiently detailed and specific to enable each bidder to know exactly what he is doing. The chief matters which should be covered in the rules are the following: the time when the bidding will be closed; whether the lowest bidder will receive the contract,

or whether the board reserves the right to reject any and all bids; the time and place for the delivery of the supplies; and the guarantee, if any, which the bidder must furnish that he will fulfill the terms of his bid. The rules should also stipulate that the board may accept from any firm a bid on one or more items and reject the bid or bids of the same firm on other items; this rule is recommended because it frequently happens that a given firm will have a lower price on a certain material or materials than will other firms, but its bid on the other materials may be higher than the bids of other firms. Bidders should be given at least three weeks from the time of advertising in which to prepare and submit their bids.

Business ethics have improved so much during recent years that a guarantee from the bidder that he will fulfill the terms of his bid is often not considered necessary. If a guarantee is deemed desirable, it need not be more than 10 per cent of the cost of the supplies to be furnished. Moreover, if a guarantee is required, it may be given in the nature of either a bond or a certified check. Furnishing such a guarantee is, of course, an additional expense to the supply firm and such expense must be borne eventually by the purchaser of the supplies.

Tabulating the bids. — In tabulating and considering the bids the lowest one should be considered first. If that bid meets the required specifications, no question need be raised. If the bidder submits a substitute, and there is a question in the minds of the purchasing officials of whether the substitute meets the required specifications, the matter should be referred to a committee constituted of persons who must use the material. In Rochester, New York, this practice has been in operation for several years, and J. S. Mullan, ex-secretary of the Rochester Board of Education, has the following to say of the working of the plan:

> In all cases where committees are requested to sit in and counsel, before any sample is submitted for consideration all trade marks, names and labels which indicate the manufacturer or the person offering the sample

for competition are erased or detached from such sample so that the opinion of those on the committee may be based upon the merits of the article without any knowledge as to who offered the sample in question. The purchasing agent marks the sample with a key number and the committee in making its recommendation refers only to the key number. Its choice is registered as first, second, third, etc. Should its first choice be the highest priced material the purchasing agent calls attention to this fact. If the difference, in the judgment of the committee, warrants the expense, the first choice is so recommended. If, on the other hand, in its judgment, the second, third, or fourth choice might meet our requirements, and there is a considerable saving by so accepting the bid, the committee may reconsider and recommend the purchase of a cheaper article.

Time for settlement. — Many supply houses give a small discount — usually from 2 to 10 per cent — for the payment of any bill within ten, twenty, or thirty days after the invoice is submitted, and school officials should arrange to take advantage of such discount. Practically all industrial concerns take advantage of these discounts, but boards of education frequently fail to do so because of red tape concerned with making settlements. The rules and regulations of the board of education should stipulate that when a purchase order is approved by the board, the vote of approval automatically provides for the payment of the bill as soon as the invoice is received and the supplies are received and checked for quality and quantity. Throughout the nation, the general failure to take advantage of such discounts results in an annual loss to the schools of hundreds of thousands of dollars.

Checking of supplies delivered. — When the supplies have been delivered to the school system, they should be checked to ascertain whether they measure up to the samples or meet the specifications prescribed in the purchase order. School officials cannot risk being cheated, whether by design or by accident. In particular, the quantity, the quality, and the condition of the supplies should be checked. Most of the larger school systems, which use annually several hundred thousand dollars' worth of supplies, employ a special checking

clerk or clerks for performing this service. Of course, in the smaller school systems a special checking clerk cannot be employed, and the task there must be performed by the superintendent of schools, the clerk of the board of education, or some other person appointed by the board.

STORAGE OF SUPPLIES

Storage in general storehouse. — The various school systems use two practices in storing supplies. Under the first practice the supplies are stored *in a general storehouse* which serves the whole school system. This practice obtains, of course, for supplies other than fuel and similarly bulky supplies which may be more practicably stored in the unit in which they are to be used. Under the second practice the supplies are stored *in the school* in which they are to be used; according to this practice, as soon as the supplies have been received from the supply firm, they are delivered to the several schools.

If a general storehouse is used, it should be centrally located, be as near to a railroad or a railroad switch as possible, and be amply provided with fire protection, with adequate, well-arranged, and well-indexed shelves, and with other conveniences. Most of the large school systems have organized a combination shop, garage, and supply storehouse; frequently, an abandoned school building can be adapted for these purposes.

Storage in the individual school. — There are two practices regarding the storage of supplies in the individual school. The most common practice is to store all educational supplies in the principal's office, from which they are distributed to the teachers as they are needed and requisitioned; janitor's supplies, of course, are stored in the janitor's office or room. In the second practice, the supplies are taken, as soon as they are received by the school system, to the teachers' or janitors' rooms where they are to be used. The second practice has been used for several years in Rochester, New York. The

advantages of the Rochester procedure are summarized thus by a principal of one of the schools of that city:

> From the teacher's point of view the system: (a) provides each teacher with all her supplies to work with at the beginning of the term; (b) indicates just how much she is to have and is sure to get for the term's work, so she can plan her work accordingly; (c) provides for an adequate amount but not an over-supply, so it teaches economy on the teacher's part; (d) provides for the saving of time, as it is not necessary to be constantly sending to the principal's office for supplies throughout the school year.
>
> From the principal's point of view, the system: (a) provides for the saving of time, because no requisitions and no duplicate handling of supplies are required, and teachers do not have to ask the office constantly for some supplies; (b) emphasizes the importance of economy all along the line; (c) eliminates the necessity of keeping at the office a record of each teacher's allotment of supplies throughout the term; (d) eliminates the necessity of storeroom space within the building; (e) saves janitor's time as all supplies are delivered at one time to a teacher.

Further suggestions on storage. — Whether the supplies are stored in the principal's office, or in the teachers' and the janitors' rooms, provision should be made for their safekeeping. The supplies should not be deposited on an open shelf or in an open case in the hallway or in a classroom. Such practice would, of course, invite pilfering, vandalism, or waste in some other way. The following additional suggestions on the stowing of supplies, particularly in a general storehouse, are made:

1. In order that they may be more easily issued, inspected, and inventoried, supplies should be stored uniformly and neatly.
2. All supplies should be placed on the shelves, or in the bins, in such a way that they will not be damaged. For example, books and paper should be piled flat, not placed on edge.
3. Whenever possible, old supplies should be issued first.
4. Supplies with defective wrapping or containers should be placed first on the shelves, or in the bins in order that they will be used first.
5. A perpetual inventory of each supply item should be kept.

USE OF SUPPLIES

Standardization of amount. — Every school employee should know the amount of supplies he will have for use during the year, semester, or other period of time; with such information he can plan his work accordingly. It is desirable, therefore, to effect standardization on some basis. Without such standardization there is danger of waste, because many employees and pupils are likely to believe that any amount of supplies may be had for the asking; moreover, without it some employees are likely to attempt to hoard supplies. An excellent unit on which to standardize educational supplies is the per pupil per year unit; for example, a certain number of sheets of penmanship paper may be allotted for each second-grade pupil, and other supply items may be allotted on a similar pupil, subject, and grade basis. A dollars and cents unit is not so desirable because the cost of materials fluctuates from year to year; nor is the teacher unit so desirable because the number of pupils under the various teachers is not always the same. All standards should be subject to annual revision.

In Rochester, New York, a plan of standardization has been developed co-operatively by the principals, supervisors, teachers, janitors, and the members of the purchasing department; the unit of standardization there is the pupil. In that school system, every teacher, janitor, and other employee knows at the beginning of the school year the amount, and the kind, of supplies which he will receive during each ten weeks' period and during the year. Moreover, the pupils are informed by their teachers that a sufficient amount of supplies has been furnished for the grade for a ten weeks' period and that economy must be practiced if the supplies are to last. Rightly, though, the Rochester plan provides that, if any employee can show that he needs additional supplies, they are granted to him, provided the supply budget will at all permit; there is no intention of placing unnecessary strictures on the work of any employee.

Elimination of waste. — Extravagance in the use of supplies is unfair to the school system and to the public which must pay for the supplies. Moreover, it breeds wasteful habits in pupils — habits which are likely to remain through life. Teachers, principals, and other school employees should, therefore, take steps to see that supplies are used without waste; if the pupils are given some leadership and direction, they will co-operate in an economy program. It is recommended that the principal of the school occasionally take steps to ascertain the economy with which supplies in his building are being used. When necessary, the superintendent should encourage or request principals to make these checks.

When any supply becomes unnecessary in any room or school, it should be returned to the supply department. Such items may frequently be used in some other part of the school system, and sometimes they may be sold or traded to the original vendor.

Every school system should, from time to time, make an investigation of unit costs of various types of supplies in the several school buildings and departments. Such studies are particularly desirable in school systems which have not standardized the amount of supplies furnished to each pupil or each teacher. In such a study, each of the school buildings might be ranked on the per pupil expenditure for janitor's supplies, for instructional supplies, for water, for electric current, and for fuel. Such information will show the principals and the teachers of the several schools how they are using their supplies and will suggest possible wastes to be eliminated. Needless to say, studies of the type indicated can be made most practicably when there is an excellent financial-accounting system in use in the school system; where there is no such system, cost studies are almost impossible to make.

REQUISITIONING AND DELIVERING SUPPLIES

Requisitioning. — Every school system should formulate a definite procedure by which supplies may be requisitioned

by principals, teachers, janitors, and other employees. When this procedure has been decided upon it should be made known to all persons who have occasion to requisition supplies. In many school systems, even among those having a simple method of requisitioning, such method is not known to all members of the school personnel. Of course, if a plan such as that used in Rochester, New York, is adopted, all supplies to which each teacher, janitor, or other employee is entitled come to him automatically and regularly, and a requisition, except in emergency cases, is unnecessary. Most school systems, however, do not use such a plan, and therefore will find it necessary to organize a plan for requisitioning. Material should not be allowed to leave the general storehouse or the storeroom in the principal's office unless a properly signed requisition or similar document has been received therefor; accounting cannot take place except on the basis of data found in such requisitions.

The kind of requisition blank to be used will depend, of course, on the procedure for distribution which has been adopted. If the supplies for a given building are kept in the building storeroom and are apportioned to the teachers as they are needed, the teacher may use such a requisition blank as shown in Fig. 32.

Delivering. — The most common practice in the small and the medium-sized school systems is to deliver the supplies immediately, upon their arrival, to the school in which they are to be used. In fact, a few of the larger school systems have adopted that practice. The practice has the advantage of requiring only one handling of the supplies.

Most of the larger school systems, however, store all supplies, with the exception of fuel and similar materials, in a general storehouse and deliver from the general storehouse to the various school units as supplies are needed. When such a plan is used, the delivery system should meet certain criteria. In the first place, it is usually best to provide for a delivery schedule; such a schedule is particularly desirable — in fact,

almost indispensable — in the large school systems. In Rochester, New York, the supplies are delivered from the central storehouse to the several buildings twice each semester with an interval of ten weeks between deliveries. This plan presupposes that sufficient supplies will be delivered at each trip to operate the school for ten weeks. Emergency deliveries,

_____, 19____

_____Teacher_____pupils on active roll

_____Room_____Grade_____Building

For this month I shall need these supplies:

Quantity Needed	Quantity on Hand	Item No.	Article	✓	Don't Write Here

Supplies received as checked — Approved

Teacher — Principal

When supplies are delivered check (✓) in column provided and return this form to the principal.

Fig. 32. — Teacher's Requisition Blank for Supplies.

however, are arranged for, but an attempt is made to reduce these to a minimum. Other school systems have delivery schedules with longer or shorter time intervals. The usual practice is to have a shorter interval between deliveries than Rochester has. Some school systems provide for a delivery once a week, others twice a month, others once a month, and still others once every two months. Provided there is sufficient

storage space in the school buildings, the better practice seems to be to have a longer interval between deliveries. Probably the best practice is to arrange for storage space in each school building in order that supplies sufficient for a year can be delivered as soon as they are received from the vendor.

SCHOOL USE OF PUBLIC UTILITIES

All city school systems and most of the larger rural ones make regular use of the services of various public utilities. The chief services used are telephones, electric current, gas, and water. In only the small rural schools, especially the one-teacher schools, are the services infrequent.

Economies in telephones. — Many opportunities for economies exist in the use of utility services. For the more economical use of telephones, the following suggestions are made:

1. During the summer vacation, telephones in many buildings and departments may be disconnected or removed, thus saving the rental on them during those months.
2. In schools and departments which have many telephones the possibility of economies through the installation of a switchboard should be considered. Such an arrangement is almost always advisable in large buildings which house the administrative personnel. Often the switchboard operator can serve also as information clerk and can do typing and other secretarial work.

Economies in electric current, gas, and water. — Economies in the use of electric current, gas, and water may be effected through the following means:

1. For each utility service every building should have a meter, thus making possible comparisons of usage in each building. The data of these comparisons should be reported periodically to the principals of the various schools and their co-operation asked in the elimination of all leaks and other wastes.
2. When buildings are being erected the lights of each room should be placed on different switches in order that the part of the room farthest from the windows may be lighted first. In new buildings the use of the

photo-electric relay should be considered; this device will automatically turn on and off as needed the lights in a room or group of rooms.[1]

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Outline a practical plan for determining the kinds of supplies to be used in a given school system.

2. Do you favor standardizing the amount of supplies allotted to each teacher, janitor, and other employee? Why or why not? Upon what unit, if any, would you recommend that standardization be effected? Why?

3. Would co-operative purchasing of supplies for the rural schools of each county in your state be practicable? Why or why not? Would state-wide co-operative purchasing be practicable? Explain.

4. To what extent should local merchants be favored in the purchasing of supplies? Should supplies be purchased from chain stores or from independent merchants? Explain.

5. What steps should be taken to insure an economical use of supplies by pupils?

6. What types of educational supplies, if any, should the school furnish pupils free of charge? Should all supplies be furnished?

7. What provisions should be made for the approval of bills for payment?

8. How can you explain the fact that school officials often fail to take advantage of discounts offered by supply houses for the payment of bills before a certain date?

9. Should a guarantee be required of firms that submit bids on school-supply contracts? Explain.

10. In the purchasing of school supplies what relation should exist between the business department and the educational department? Explain.

11. Why should school supplies be purchased during the summer months?

12. How large should a school system be before it could practicably employ a full-time purchasing agent? Explain.

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Chapter XVII

ADMINISTRATION OF PUPIL TRANSPORTATION

THE EVOLUTION OF PUPIL TRANSPORTATION

Since its beginning in Quincy, Massachusetts, in 1874, the transportation of pupils at public expense has had a phenomenal growth. In the whole United States more than 3,000,000 pupils are now transported to and from school daily; for this huge task more than 80,000 buses are required and more than $60,000,000 of public funds are expended annually. Pupil transportation is found chiefly in the rural districts, but most of the city districts must transport a few pupils, especially those physically handicapped. Although city school systems frequently use school buses, most of them pay the fares of pupils on streetcars, motorbuses, and other private means of transportation. Since the transportation problem is found chiefly in rural districts, the discussion which follows will keep in mind especially those districts.

In rural education the outstanding development during recent decades has been the consolidation[1] of schools, that is, the abandonment of one or more smaller schools, usually one-teacher schools, and the bringing together of their pupils into a single larger school. School consolidation and pupil transportation have grown rapidly and at about the same rate, the chief factors contributing to their growth being the following:

1. The accumulating evidence that consolidated schools provide better educational opportunities than one-teacher schools.

[1]A consolidated school is often called a centralized school. Consolidation and centralization are frequently used to describe the merging of school districts as well as the merging of schools.

2. The widespread migration of people from the rural districts to the cities, leaving thousands of rural schools with such small pupil-teacher ratios that it has been deemed advisable to close them and to transport the pupils to other schools.

3. The enlarging of school districts, thus making easier the consolidation of schools. Thousands of school districts have been merged during recent years.

4. The advent of the automobile and good highways, thus making it possible to bring pupils together quickly and safely over a distance of several miles.

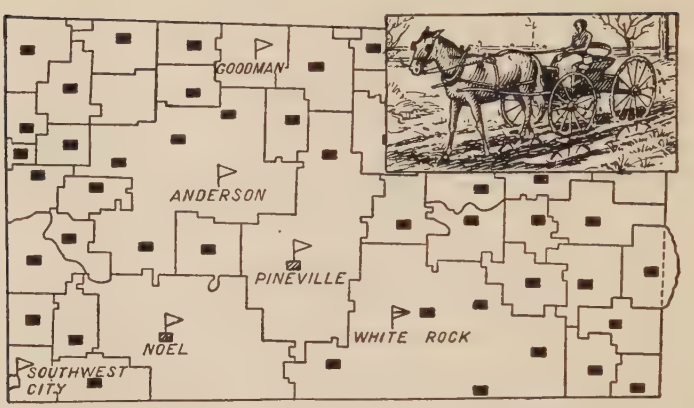
5. The enactment of state laws which permit or require consolidation and transportation and which sometimes give state aid for them.

Whereas the early laws only *permitted* school districts to transport elementary school pupils living more than a certain distance from school, the tendency among the more recent laws has been to *require* the transportation of both elementary and secondary school pupils living more than a certain distance; moreover, the tendency has been to decrease that distance.[1] Still more, the recent laws have recognized that transportation is a necessary element in the equalization of educational opportunity and have granted state aid for it the same as for instruction and other current expenses of the school.

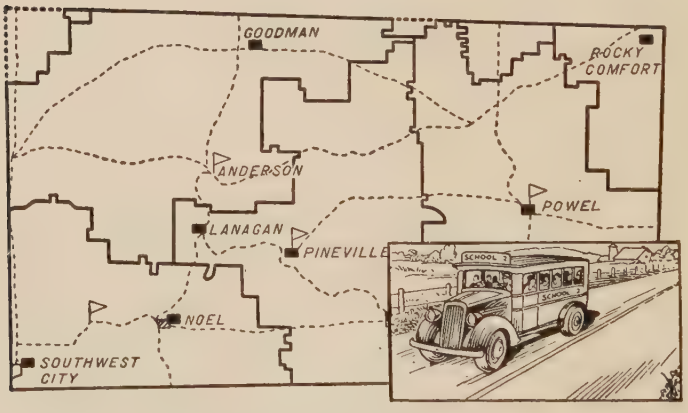
The transportation movement has much farther to go, although the period of greatest expansion seems to be past. Consolidations of many, most, or all of the remaining approximately a hundred thousand one-teacher schools and mergers of hundreds of small consolidated schools will eventually add several hundred thousand more pupils to the transportation load. A few other thousands will be added to the load by districts which do not transport any secondary school pupils at public expense, and do not transport elementary school pupils unless they live more than two or three miles from school.

[1] The most common distance beyond which elementary school pupils are required to be transported is two miles; many states, though, have made the distance one mile and the tendency in theory and practice is toward that distance. Most states do not now require the transportation of secondary school pupils, but the tendency is toward such requirement, especially for those who live more than two or three miles from school.

A County Before and After



Small School Districts Served the Small Communities of Pioneer Days and Slow Travel



But Today this County Has Good Highways, Larger Communities and NEEDS Larger School Districts

FIG. 33. — Evolution from Small Districts and One-Teacher Schools to Larger Districts, Larger Schools, and Pupil Transportation. (From Frank W. Cyr, Arvid J. Burke, and Paul R. Mort, *Paying for Our Public Schools*, p. 144. Copyright by International Textbook Company.)

THE PLANNING OF ROUTES

Making a map of the routes. — The planning of transportation routes should receive the attention of school officials several weeks before the opening of the school year. If the district contracts for its transportation service, it will need route plans before it can let contracts; and if it owns its conveyances and is purchasing new ones, it will need route plans before it can know the capacities of the conveyances to be purchased. Alterations may need to be made in former routes because of changes in the condition of highways, bridges, and other physical features of the district; moreover, a shift in school population or a change in the boundaries of the district may cause the routes of the preceding year to be unsatisfactory. In fact, alterations are often advisable during a school year, because of changes in one or more of the factors just mentioned. School officials and employees who spend extra time and effort in attempting to improve their transportation routes are certain to be rewarded in the greater happiness, comfort, and safety of the pupils, in greater economy of operation, and in larger community support and good will.

As the chief step in route planning, school officials should prepare a transportation map of the district. Such information as the name, age, grade, and residence of each child entitled to transportation must be known before the map can be constructed; moreover, this information will be necessary before the transportation equipment for the district can be purchased or contracted. In order that plans may be made for future years as well as for the current year, information should be secured on the children not yet old enough to enter school as well as on those to be in school during the current year. The following further suggestions for making transportation maps are given:

1. Outline the boundaries of the school district on the map. Locate the school or schools of the district.
2. Draw in the streams, railroads, and similar barriers.

3. Draw in (to scale) the roads in the district, designating their condition with such lines as the following:
   ———————— *Paved roads* (asphalt, brick, concrete, macadam).
   - *Improved roads* (gravel, shell, stone).
   . . . . . *Graded roads* (smooth and drained dirt).
   ═══════════ *Dirt roads* (sand, dirt, but not graded).
   ////////////////////////////// *Roads under construction or soon to be.*
4. Mark bridges, fords, grade crossings, and other hazards with appropriate symbols.
5. Locate homes with such symbols as the following: Mark those homes that have children with a square ☐. Where homes have pupils to be transported, put the number of pupils *inside* the square, thus [2]. If the children are not to be transported, put the figure at the *right side* of the square, thus ☐ 1. If children are under school age, put the number at the *left side* of the square, thus 3 ☐.
6. Total the number of pupils to be transported. Using the scale of the map, determine the total mileage of the shortest routes by which all pupils may be reached.
7. Lay out tentative routes. Avoid retraces wherever possible. Unless the buses are kept in the school garage at night, the starting points of the routes will be the homes of the drivers, which cannot be known until the drivers are selected.
8. Total the number of pupils on each route. This total will show the capacities of buses needed. Compare it with the capacities of the buses on hand. If necessary, make adjustments to avoid overcrowding or consider the advisability of getting buses of larger capacity. Although it is not ideal, an unused seat is more to be condoned than standing and sitting in aisles.
9. Check each route, adjusting if necessary to keep its length within the time limit.
10. Check the proposed routes by going over them, preferably with the driver, then lay out the routes on a new map, this master map to be placed in the superintendent's office for reference.
11. From the master map, lay out separate route cards for each driver, marking the exact route to be followed both morning and evening and all stops in the order in which they are to be made.
12. Revise the routes during the year to take account of any shift in population, changes in condition of roads, bridges, etc.

Length of routes. — The length of a route should be determined largely by the time required to traverse it. The

time will be determined by the speed at which the bus travels and the number of stops. The speed will be determined by the type and condition of roads and the type and number of hazards. In setting the speed at which the bus travels, it should be remembered that safety is the first consideration. Many states have statutes or regulations which set a maximum speed beyond which school buses shall not travel; these limits are set at thirty or thirty-five miles per hour, usually the latter, and they would seem appropriate under good highway conditions.

Except in unusual cases, pupils should not be required to spend more than one hour on the bus either morning or evening; of course, a maximum of forty-five minutes, or even less, is much better, but it is not always feasible because of lack of revenue. Whenever possible, pupils who have the long ride in the morning should have the short one in the evening. If it should be found that buses can be loaded and be made to arrive at the school in less than thirty minutes, the possibility of having double routes, or of using larger buses over longer routes, should be considered.

Waiting stations. — Because of the condition of highways, highway hazards, lack of school revenue, and similar factors, the school bus cannot always be sent to the home of each pupil. On most routes a few pupils will be required to walk a certain distance to meet the bus or to be transported gratis by parents to the meeting place. Many school districts provide waiting stations (small boxlike structures) for pupils who must travel more than approximately one-half mile to meet the bus.

Co-operative and large-scale planning of routes. — Except in the Southern states where the county unit of school organization is prevalent, the town, township, or an even smaller district is the usual school unit in the United States. In the county unit, the county board of education and the county superintendent plan the transportation routes for the whole county; in the small district type of organization the

local boards and superintendents plan them. Small districts increase the difficulty of planning transportation systems and result in many inefficiencies. For example, it is not uncommon to find overlapping routes in the same district, buses of two



Fig. 34. — Evolution from One-Teacher Schools to Consolidated Schools. (The small schools shown at the top were recently abandoned in Boone County, Arkansas, for the consolidated school shown at the bottom. Hundreds of such consolidations are being effected each year.)

or more districts traveling the same road, or buses of one district carrying pupils through another district to reach the school they serve. In the whole United States these practices result annually in hundreds of millions of miles of useless bus travel and in the loss of millions of dollars.

By improving a stretch of connecting highway, highway officials can often make it possible for a school bus to avoid retracing a highway. The county board of education, or other

authority having the power to adjust school district lines, can correct many bad situations by making transfers of territory from one school district to another; such transfers of territory are often advisable because many school consolidations have been made and subsequent additions made thereto with little or no consideration having been given to the problems of pupil transportation. Pupils may often be transferred from one school or district to another because of the greater ease of transporting them.

In establishing school district lines, township and even county lines should be disregarded, provided, of course, the laws of the state permit it; this suggestion is especially pertinent in districts which are a part of any of the United States Land Office Surveys, because in them the highways, as a rule, follow the section and township lines. Moreover, if it can be avoided, the dividing line between two school districts should not be a highway, inasmuch as such a boundary often necessitates both districts sending a bus over the same highway.

Circular and "shoestring" routes. — Routes are sometimes classified as "circular" and "shoestring." A circular route begins near or at the school, and, of course, ends at the school. On such a route, the pupils who live near the school first enter the bus in the morning and are carried a greater distance than would be necessary if they were to go directly from their home to the school. Such routes avoid driving with an empty bus, but they often result in dissatisfaction on the part of many pupils and their parents.

This dissatisfaction usually arises over the direction in which the bus "traces the circle." To decrease these complaints the bus may be driven in one direction for a few weeks or a few months, then driven in the opposite direction for a similar period. Another plan is to make the evening trip in the same direction as the morning one; this practice gives the pupils who have the long ride in the morning the short one in the evening.

A shoestring route begins at or near a boundary of the district and proceeds toward the school, collecting first those children who live farthest from school. Such a route may become branching in form as the bus makes trips upon side roads leading from and to the main highway.

No rule can be suggested regarding the economy in miles that will result from the use of either type of route, because other factors, such as the type of ownership of the conveyance, where the conveyance is housed, and whether the driver is a student or an adult, have a bearing on the distance traveled. In the final analysis, the primary purpose to be kept in mind in laying out routes is to transport the children in safety and in comfort, and the convenience of the driver or the matter of driving a few miles with an empty bus is of secondary consideration.

Single versus multiple routes. — Multiple routes, that is, the using of one bus to traverse more than one route, are usually cheaper than single routes. Multiple routes are often feasible where the highways permit a better than average speed, and where the population is dense.

When multiple routes are used, it is advantageous if the one driven last is of the circular type, since it will begin and end at the school. A short circular route may often be combined with a longer shoestring one. In such a practice the time required to cover the short route should not exceed thirty minutes, because there are objections to having one group of children arrive at the school several minutes in advance of others, and to dismissing two groups at a similar interval.[1] Under such conditions teachers and school officials find difficulty in adjusting the daily program for pupils; moreover, discipline sometimes becomes a problem. Although single routes are always to be preferred, they may be too expensive; in other words, the inconvenience of double routes, and

[1] If the district has two schools located fairly close together, the daily sessions of one of the schools might be begun and closed one half-hour earlier than those of the other school, thus enabling the buses of the district to serve both schools.

possibly of triple routes, will occasionally have to be tolerated in the interest of financial economy.

"Feeder" routes. — "Feeder" routes are frequently used to transport some of the pupils to the highway which the bus travels. These routes are usually driven by parents who transport their own children and the children of their neighbors. Such routes are often necessary in districts which possess only a few improved arteries of traffic and many dirt or otherwise poor roads. Under these conditions school districts usually secure a large capacity bus which travels these improved arteries and collects and distributes the pupils which the feeder routes transport. Although such routes are often necessary, they have proved to be expensive on a per pupil basis.

The time schedule. — A time schedule indicates the time and place of all bus stops both morning and evening. A tentative schedule for the first few days of the school term should be made and a notice of it sent to each home having pupils to be transported. After the route has been traveled a few days, a permanent schedule should be made and announced. The schedule can be followed only when there is co-operation on the part of parents, pupils, bus driver, and teachers.

THE SCHOOL BUS DRIVER

Importance of the position. — The bus driver is an important member of the school personnel and everywhere the position should be professionalized. He is important because he is expected to perform the following duties: (1) transport the pupils safely and with proper regard for their health and comfort; (2) exercise a desirable moral, educational, and disciplinary influence over the pupils; (3) maintain proper custody over the bus which he operates; (4) practice economy in the use of gasoline, motor oil, and other supplies.

Certification. — Every state should have a statute or other regulation requiring school bus drivers to hold a certificate. In the absence of state laws or regulations, local districts

should establish their own standards. The standards which should be established for a certificate are the following:

1. A minimum age of twenty-one.
2. Physical fitness, this to be determined by a physician's examination.
3. Knowledge of state and local transportation laws and practices, this to be determined by (1) a written test, (2) an oral test, and (3) an actual driving test.
4. Good character and good habits.

Persons meeting the standards just outlined should be issued a certificate valid for one year. The certificate should be renewable to employed drivers of the previous year, provided they pass the physical examination each year and continue to possess good character, good health, and driving efficiency.

Selection. — Since the chief executive of the board of education is more likely to know the requisite qualifications for the positions, and the relative abilities of the persons who are available for the positions, he should be delegated the responsibility of recommending all drivers to the board. The board, in turn, should have the responsibility of approving or rejecting such nominations; if, however, it rejects a nomination, it should not substitute a candidate of its own selection, but should request the chief executive to make another nomination.

One of the greatest handicaps to securing the best bus drivers has been the practice of employing them on the basis of competition; this practice is criticized because it results in the employment of the lowest bidder and the placing of cost ahead of quality of service. Selecting janitors, teachers, principals, superintendents, and other school employees on the basis of lowest bid was seen long ago to be a bad practice and has passed into limbo; the selection of bus drivers on that basis is also indefensible and should be abandoned. In selecting any employee, school officials should determine the amount they can pay, then undertake to secure the best qualified person for that amount.

Student drivers. — Student drivers are often used because they are cheaper than adults. In addition to the financial economy which comes from the employment of student drivers, it is frequently argued that (1) the students know the school routine and policies and will, therefore, willingly and intelligently co-operate in carrying out any instructions given them and (2) they are at school and ready to start the trip home as soon as school is dismissed.

Most school officials who employ student drivers admit that their practice is a concession to expediency or that it is followed because of lack of revenue; they admit that adult drivers would be more efficient even though the student drivers whom they have employed have usually proved satisfactory. Compared with adult drivers, student drivers have the following limitations: (1) they result in a shorter tenure of drivers, because most of them graduate from high school at seventeen, eighteen, or nineteen; (2) their judgment in emergencies is more likely to be faulty; (3) they are more inclined to drive too rapidly or recklessly; (4) they are less able to maintain discipline among the pupils; and (5) they are minors, hence their ability to contract, to give bond, and to meet other legal responsibilities is uncertain — in fact, many courts have decided that minors are not legally responsible.

School-employee drivers. — A few schools employ their teachers as bus drivers. The usual arguments advanced in favor of this practice are: (1) it is more economical; (2) it increases the income of teachers, hence helps to secure a more qualified teaching personnel; (3) it results in better supervision of, and discipline among, the pupils; and (4) it extends the teacher's opportunity to further the education of the pupils.

Most schools, though, frown upon the employment of teachers as bus drivers for the following reasons: (1) an excellent teacher may be a poor driver; (2) it takes time and energy which should be devoted to teaching duties; (3) it

requires the teacher to arrive at school late and to leave immediately after school, thus preventing him from attending faculty meetings and from performing other school work; and (4) it takes employment from another person.

Janitors are sometimes appointed to drive school buses. This practice is feasible only when the school has more than one janitor, because at least one janitor should always be available before and after school hours. The arguments for and against the employment of janitors as drivers are practically the same as those just given for and against the employment of teachers as drivers.

Salary and tenure of the driver. — Since there is certain to be, as there should be, a close relation between the salaries and the qualifications of school bus drivers, attempt should be made to pay enough to secure persons of desirable qualifications. What that salary should be will, of course, be determined largely by local conditions such as cost of living and supply and demand of labor.

Since the typical route does not require more than one hour each way daily of the driver's time, it should not be expected that the amount of pay would provide the driver with all of his livelihood. The argument that he should be paid a "living wage" for approximately two hours of work per day is entirely spurious; and when attempt is made to put the argument into practice, unjustly high transportation costs are noted. School officials who are paying too much for pupil transportation either should seek bus drivers who have supplementary means of livelihood or they should reduce the pay of those who do not have such means.

In no part of the school personnel is there so short a tenure as among the bus drivers. Most of them have only one-year contracts, and a large number of the contracts are not renewed even though services have been satisfactory. No sooner has the typical driver become acquainted with his work than he resigns or is dismissed, and another takes his place. This constant turnover increases the difficulty of securing the most

desirable drivers; moreover, it demands that school officials be constantly engaged in selecting and training new drivers. All this results in needless expense and in reduced efficiency. Some of the chief causes of the turnover are inadequate salaries, competitive bidding, short contracts, the employment of student drivers, and the selection of drivers on extraneous bases such as "politics" or relationship to board members. Remove those causes, and the tenure of drivers will be increased.

Training of the driver in service. — There are several hundred schools for preparing teachers, and a few which offer short courses for school janitors, but there is no school, so far as we have been able to ascertain, which offers even a short course for school bus drivers; here, then, is an opportunity for pioneer service.

School officials can frequently make suggestions to the bus drivers regarding the improvement of some part of the service. Occasionally they will be able to suggest some helpful reading. Unfortunately there is not a national magazine for school bus drivers, and here would seem to be another opportunity for someone to make a distinct contribution to educational progress. In the United States there are more than eighty thousand school bus drivers and practically all of them can read, and many of them *would* read a good periodical on their work.

In school systems which have a fairly large number of bus drivers the drivers might be encouraged to organize an association that would meet, say, once each month for the discussion of common problems. In a county system of schools all the bus drivers might be brought together for a few days of institute work each year.

Operating rules for the driver. — Every school system which has a transportation program should adopt a set of operating rules for the bus drivers. After the rules have been adopted, and each driver has been provided with a copy of them, it will be helpful to hold one or more meetings of the

bus drivers for the purpose of discussing and explaining them. The rules might well be grouped under such headings as the following:[1]

1. Rules governing driver's personal habits.
2. Rules for the supervision of pupils.
3. Rules governing safe driving.
4. Rules governing care of bus.
5. Rules for handling accidents.
6. Miscellaneous.

Transportation rules for pupils. — Although the driver may be infinitely cautious, the hazards on his route few, and his equipment the best, pupils are likely to meet injury unless they are made conscious of all known hazards and are instructed in how to avoid them. The famous "Do Right" rule which the "Hoosier Schoolmaster," as portrayed by Edward Eggleston, found sufficient for governing the pupils of his school will not suffice for governing and protecting pupils who are transported to and from school in this later age of rapidly moving motor vehicles. Pupils must be given guidance in finding the right; nay more, those who are transported must often be *told* what the right is, and be held responsible for following it. Every school system which has a transportation program should have, therefore, a list of transportation rules for pupils. Moreover, the pupils should be given instruction on the rules and be expected to follow them.[2]

The driver's substitute and assistants. — Because of his sickness, of death or sickness in his family, or for other legitimate reasons, the regular driver must sometimes have a substitute. School officials should make provisions for substitute drivers and should make them before the beginning of the school year in order that there may not be a delay or

[1] A complete set of such rules may be consulted in Ward G. Reeder's *The Administration of Pupil Transportation*, pp. 47–56.

[2] A complete set of such rules may be found in the reference mentioned immediately above.

other deterioration in service. Substitute drivers should have qualifications at least as high as those of the regular drivers; in fact, since they can hardly be as familiar with road hazards and other phases of the work as the regular drivers are, they should probably possess even higher qualifications. School officials should always select or approve the substitute drivers, and this regulation should be another part of the driver's contract.

The number of substitute drivers will be determined by the local situation. If all buses leave from a central point, say the school garage, one substitute will be able to serve more than one route; when the school system has its own garage and a bus mechanic, the latter employee will usually be able to serve as a substitute driver, provided, of course, he does not regularly drive one of the buses. Under most conditions, one substitute for each five or six regular drivers will be found sufficient. When the bus is kept overnight at the end of the route, attempt should be made to secure a substitute in that locality.

In certain cases the bus driver is given an adult and paid attendant who accompanies him on each trip and helps him with his work much as a streetcar conductor assists the motorman. This practice is found, and would seem to be feasible, only where unusually large buses are used, where hazards are greater because of the traffic and dense population, and where physically handicapped children must be carried or led to and from the bus. The practice of having pupil and non-paid assistants is much more frequent than that of having paid assistants. Pupil assistants are usually called "school bus patrols" or "school bus monitors."

THE SCHOOL BUS

Standards for buses. — With the advent of the automobile and good roads school consolidation and pupil transportation received a tremendous stimulus, and within a few years the automobile had largely supplanted "old Dobbin" as a means



FIG. 35. — Evolution of Pupil-Transportation Vehicles.

of transportation. The tendency everywhere has been toward state regulation of the vehicles of transportation and every year the regulations have grown more rigid. The specific standards[1] have been developed in conformity with the following general standards:

1. *Safety* is the first standard to be kept in mind when purchasing a bus or approving a contract for a privately owned one. This standard has dictated the majority of changes which have been made in school bus construction, and it has been the stimulus for most of the legislation and regulations adopted by various states. It has led to the adoption of steel construction, safety glass, window guards, emergency doors, standard colors, and innumerable other features.

2. *Comfort* is second only to safety in its importance as a standard for school buses; in fact, there is a close relationship between comfort and safety. The lack of comfort — caused, for example, by extreme temperatures, poor ventilation, and improper seating provision — can injure health and thereby affect the safety of the occupants of the bus as much as can an accident.

3. *Durability* is another factor to be considered in purchasing or renting a school bus; by durability of a product is meant its ability to stand wear and tear. Provided the finances of the district permit, the extra money necessary to secure durability will usually be a good investment; from it there will come a longer life of the bus, fewer failures of service, smaller and less frequent bills for repairs and replacements, and fewer annoyances in general for everyone connected with transportation.

4. *Economy* is still another general standard to be kept in mind in selecting and operating school buses, especially the chassis. Economy is closely related to durability. A bus that is not durable will require larger expenditures for repairs and replacements. Likewise, the type of motor, the weight of the bus per pupil, and many other features determine economy. Important though it is, economy is not the only consideration; smoothness of operation and reserve power ample for an emergency may be even more important.

5. *Availability of repairs* is a final consideration to be kept in mind in selecting a school bus. It is good policy to secure, other factors being equal, a make of bus, especially the chassis, represented by a dealer in or near the school district. Great inconvenience is likely to result if a

[1] For specific standards, see Ward G. Reeder, *The Administration of Pupil Transportation*, pp. 96–127, or F. W. Cyr, *et al.*, *Minimum Standards for School Buses Developed and Approved by Representatives of Forty-Eight State Education Departments.*

bus is laid up for repairs more than a few hours, and that is certain to result when replacement parts must be secured from the manufacturer.

State standards for school buses are being more and more enforced through periodic and systematic inspection of all school buses. Several states require at least an annual inspection by the state highway patrol, and these and other inspections are usually made without warning.

School buses of large capacity have been found to be cheaper to operate than those of small capacity, and they should, therefore, be used, especially in districts which have excellent highways and a dense or fairly dense population. Most states, though, rightly limit the capacity to fifty-five or sixty because of the belief that that is a peak load for proper supervision and safety.

Although numerous investigations have found that school buses are often loaded beyond their seating capacity, most of them have shown that by far the majority of the buses have one or more vacant seats. In overloading there is false economy, while in underloading there is financial waste. Better planning of routes before buses are purchased or contracted will help to prevent both overloading and underloading.

Types of bus ownership. — The most controversial part of pupil-transportation procedures has been concerned with determining the best plan of bus ownership. The question is still somewhat controversial, although more research has been done on it than on any other phase of transportation. The following three plans are now being used:

1. *The contract plan.* Under this plan the school district enters into an agreement with one or more individuals or with a public carrier to provide pupil transportation; under it the contractor provides all equipment, drivers, and supplies and receives a stated sum, usually in monthly payments, during the school year. This plan was almost always used in the early days and it is still the most widely used.

2. *The school-ownership plan.* Under this plan the school district purchases the conveyances, employs drivers, furnishes all supplies, and makes

all other provisions for the operation and maintenance of the conveyances. The tendency in both theory and practice is toward the use of it and away from the use of the contract plan.

3. *The joint-ownership plan.* Under this plan the contractor furnishes part of the conveyance (usually the chassis) and is responsible for its operation and upkeep, while the school district provides the other part (usually the bus body) and looks after its upkeep. During the summer months the bus body is frequently removed from the chassis and is stored in order that the chassis may be used for other purposes.

Financial economy is one of the factors in which all plans are claimed to be superior, and that is a factor which can be fairly well measured by available data; in fact, several excellent studies of the cost of pupil transportation have been made during recent years, and most of them throw light on the question of which plan of ownership is better. The evidence presented in those studies is overwhelmingly favorable to school-owned conveyances. Among the factors which help to cause this economy are the following:

1. School-owned buses are not run for profit, whereas contracted ones necessarily have that motive.
2. School-owned buses are usually exempt from all forms of taxation, whereas contracted ones usually must pay all types of taxes.

In weighing the above evidence the reader should remember that there are other factors to be considered as well as financial economy. Although school-owned buses are usually more economical, they may have disadvantages which overbalance that economy. Moreover, in weighing the evidence any critical reader is certain to question the techniques used in some of the studies; for example, he will notice that in some of the studies a charge on school-owned buses was not included for depreciation and overhead; and he will notice that school-owned buses are usually newer, larger, and are operated over better highways than contracted ones.[1] Although the financial advantage of school-owned buses seems to be too great to be erased by correcting the techniques just mentioned, future

[1] Many investigations have shown that school-owned buses are better as well as cheaper.

studies should correct them in the interest of absolute accuracy and fairness.

The most frequent and severe criticism of school-owned buses comes from the evidence that they are treated more carelessly by bus drivers and school officials and that pupil accidents are more frequent with them. School officials can, and should, take steps to eliminate such acts of carelessness.

When private-owned buses are used, it has been found that economies may be secured through the following contracting procedures:

1. Through proper advertising for bids and taking other steps, especially to stimulate a larger number of bidders.
2. Through making contracts for three to five years instead of the traditional one-year period.
3. Through seeking contractors who have supplementary means of livelihood.

Many school systems have learned how to secure a large fleet of buses by purchasing one or more new ones each year. School districts are now using the following plans for financing the purchase of school buses:

1. *Paying cash for them.* Because of the saving of interest charges and the saving of time, this plan is recommended whenever the finances of the district permit.
2. *Issuing bonds for them.* Bonds should not be issued for a term longer than the life of the buses, and they should be of the serial type.
3. *Securing them through a rental arrangement.* The legality of this plan is doubtful in some states although it is widely used.

Auxiliary uses of buses. — By an auxiliary [1] use of a school bus is meant its use for purposes other than transporting pupils on the regular trips between their homes and school. Some of the auxiliary purposes for which school buses are frequently used are the following:

1. To transport teams representing the school in contests.
2. To transport pupils to fairs and other exhibits in which they are participating or which they are observing.

[1] Auxiliary use is sometimes called collateral use.

3. To transport classes to institutions, museums, and industrial plants which they are observing.
4. To transport ill or injured pupils to their homes or to a physician.
5. To transport teachers to institutes and other educational meetings.

Most school officials would agree that such uses, provided they are properly regulated, are legitimate uses to which public property may be put. A set of regulations, adopted by the board of education and covering the purposes for which and the conditions under which school buses may be used, is the only businesslike way of dealing with this problem. Because of the greater danger of damage to the buses and of injuries to passengers, the regulations governing the auxiliary use of buses should be more stringent than those governing such use of buildings, grounds, and other school property. Another reason for regulating the auxiliary uses of school buses is the fact that public-owned buses are usually granted free license plates and are not subject to local, state, or federal taxes of any kind. Because of these concessions to public school officials, the legality of any use of buses for non-school purposes is likely to be questioned.

The regulations governing auxiliary uses should require the regular driver to be in charge of the bus or, if that is not possible, that the person who substitutes for him shall be approved by school officials. In fact, the same driving regulations which apply to the regular use of the bus should apply to its auxiliary use. It should be known, also, that insurance covers such use the same as the regular use.

Maintenance and servicing of buses. — Districts which own several conveyances have found that the most satisfactory plan for housing, repairing, and servicing them is to own or to rent an equipped garage. The garage affords a place where buses may be stored when not in use, where regular inspections may be conducted, where repairs may be made, and where servicing may be provided. Many repairs to the school building and its equipment may also be made in the garage and that is another argument for the school to have such facility.

The garage should be of masonry, steel, or similar construction in order that it may be as nearly fireproof as possible; unless it is constructed of such material, there is a possibility of heavy or complete loss from fire, and fire insurance rates are certain to be higher. Since a garage contains oil, grease, and other highly combustible materials, it should be provided with ample fire-fighting equipment; this recommendation is made especially for rural districts which are not so likely to have water equipment. At the garage a gasoline tank and pump may be provided, together with such other supplies and equipment as will be needed to make all ordinary repairs and to service the buses; practically all supplies and many tools may be purchased in quantities, thus assuring a lower price.

The person in charge of the garage should be a competent automobile mechanic.[1] He may be given such a title as "superintendent of transportation" or "bus mechanic." During the school year his general duties will be to be responsible for the maintenance and servicing of the buses; if he is especially competent, he may be given general supervision over all phases of transportation, including bus drivers, routes, transportation records, etc. His more specific duties will be to inspect and lubricate the buses regularly, keep them supplied with gasoline and motor oil, adjust brakes, make all repairs, and keep all maintenance and servicing records. He will also be responsible for seeing that the buses are kept clean and that all safety appliances are in proper working order; he will perform these janitorial tasks himself or supervise the bus drivers in performing them. During the summer months and other vacations he may utilize his time in giving the buses any needed overhauling.

In addition to keeping all buses in good repair and properly serviced, in many school systems, especially those operating only a few buses, the mechanic has time to drive one of the

[1] Schools which own six buses or more should consider the employment of an automobile mechanic.

buses, particularly on one of the shorter routes. In other systems, especially those operating a large number of buses, he acts as a substitute driver or remains at the garage ready to go with a relief bus in answer to any emergency call which may come from a driver.

TRANSPORTATION INSURANCE

When the statutes and court decisions permit, the following types of insurance are recommended under public ownership of the transportation equipment: (1) bodily injury liability; (2) pupil accident; (3) property damage; (4) fire; (5) theft; (6) tornado; and (7) either full or deductible collision. When the school contracts for its transportation service, the following types of insurance should be required of the contractor: (1) bodily injury liability; (2) pupil accident; and (3) property damage. Since all types of school insurance are described in Chapter XVIII they will not be dealt with here.

TRANSPORTATION ACCOUNTING AND COSTS

Importance of knowing costs. — Requisite to any program for the reduction of transportation costs or for securing the greatest value from present costs is accurate and detailed information on what present costs are. How do costs in a given school or school system compare with those in other schools or school systems? How do costs for a given type of equipment or a given plan of operation compare with those under other types or plans? How may costs be decreased without lowering the quality of service? Before such questions can be answered present costs must be known.

Although hundreds of studies of the cost of pupil transportation have been made during recent years, the information which they provide is not sufficiently accurate or inclusive to establish standard unit costs for judging the efficiency of management. Most of the studies cannot be used in the establishment of standards because they have failed to take into

consideration highway conditions, size of bus, depreciation, and many other factors which influence costs.

Types of unit costs. — There are, of course, dozens of types of studies of unit costs which might be made. Thus, many items of supplies — gasoline, motor oil, tires, etc. — are in use and studies might be made of the cost of furnishing any particular supply on a per pupil or other basis. Likewise various types of equipment are operated under varying conditions and the per pupil cost of furnishing each type of equipment under each condition might be computed.

In making a unit-cost study, particularly a comparative one, two problems are immediately encountered. The first is that of making sure that all data are accurate and comparable; for example, a per pupil cost which does not include depreciation charges could not be compared with another per pupil cost which includes those charges. Requisite to any study of costs is an accounting procedure which will facilitate the securing of accurate and comparable data.[1]

A second problem encountered in making studies of unit costs is that of selecting the best unit for computing the cost on which information is desired. The cost units usually used in pupil transportation are the following:

1. *The cost per bus.* This may be stated on a per year, a per month, or a per day basis.
2. *The cost per pupil.* This may be stated on a per year, a per month, or a per day basis.
3. *The cost per mile.* This may be stated on (1) a bus-mile basis, which is the cost of sending the bus one mile, or (2) a pupil-mile basis, which is the cost of transporting one pupil one mile.

A sample cost statement. — Because it includes the information which should be found in any expense statement for a school bus we are reproducing herewith (p. 446) the expenditures for a given bus for a recent school year:

[1] For a complete set of forms for transportation accounting the reader is referred to Ward G. Reeder's *The Administration of Pupil Transportation*, pp. 177–197. One of the forms is shown in Fig. 36.

BUS DRIVER'S MONTHLY REPORT

Month of _____, 19____

Days of Month	Number of Pupils Transported: Forenoon	Afternoon	Extra Trips: A. M.	Extra Trips: P. M.	Total Daily Average	Gasoline: Gallons	Gasoline: Total Cost	Oil: Quarts	Oil: Total Cost	Grease: Pounds	Grease: Total Cost Grease and Labor	Anti-Freeze: Quarts	Anti-Freeze: Total Cost	Driver: Salary	Other Expenses: Itemized	Other Expenses: Total Cost	Reason for Tardiness	Condition of Roads	Condition of Weather	Total Expenses
1																				
2																				
3																				
4																				
5																				
6																				
7																				
8																				
9																				
10																				
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22																				
23																				
24																				
25																				
26																				
27																				
28																				
29																				
30																				
31																				
Total																				

Speedometer Reading
End of Month _____
Beginning of Month _____ Miles
Total Mileage for Month _____ Miles

Driver _____
Address _____
Telephone No. _____

TIRE SERVICE RECORD

TIRES PUT ON

Tire Number _____
Date Put On _____
Wheel No. _____
Speedometer Reading _____

Tire Number _____
Date Put On _____
Wheel No. _____
Speedometer Reading _____

Tire Number _____
Date Put On _____
Wheel No. _____
Speedometer Reading _____

Tire Number _____
Date Put On _____
Wheel No. _____
Speedometer Reading _____

TIRES REMOVED

Tire Number _____
Date Removed _____
Speedometer Reading _____

Tire Number _____
Date Removed _____
Speedometer Reading _____

Tire Number _____
Date Removed _____
Speedometer Reading _____

Tire Number _____
Date Removed _____
Speedometer Reading _____

FIG. 36. — A School Bus Driver's Monthly Report.

Driver's salary	$275.00
Gasoline	80.40
Motor oil	15.00
Lubrication	9.00
Tires	20.75
Battery charging	5.00
Parts and repairs	10.50
Washing and storage	40.75
Insurance	40.00
Depreciation (figured at $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per year)	140.00
	$636.40

The conditions of service under which the above bus operated are as follows:

Length of term in months	9
Length of term in days	180
Number of pupils transported	40
Miles the bus traveled during the year	4500
Miles the bus traveled each day	25

The unit costs for the bus are as follows:

Annual cost for the bus	$636.40
Monthly cost for the bus	70.71
Daily cost for the bus	3.54
Annual cost per pupil	15.91
Monthly cost per pupil	1.77
Daily cost per pupil	.088
Cost per bus-mile	.141
Cost per pupil-mile	.0035

OTHER METHODS OF PUPIL TRANSPORTATION

Practically all pupil transportation is conducted through the methods described in the preceding pages. This is particularly true of the rural schools. Although most pupil transportation in the city schools is conducted through the same methods used by the rural schools, the city schools frequently use municipal buses, street cars, and taxicabs. Taxicabs are used especially for the transportation of pupils who are physi-

cally handicapped. These private agencies of transportation usually are willing to give boards of education a considerable reduction in fares for such business.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the usual arguments for and against consolidated schools?

2. Should the state use its equalization funds as a "club" to require consolidations where needed? Why or why not?

3. What obligation, if any, does the state have to establish standards for school buses, drivers, and transportation routes? Explain.

4. A few states have recently started the practice of transporting private and parochial school children the same as public school ones. Do you favor such practice? Explain.

5. Should high school pupils be transported at public expense? Why or why not?

6. Account for the fact that school bus drivers have frequently organized to oppose public ownership of school buses.

7. Do you believe that high school pupils should be permitted to drive school buses? Explain.

8. Which of the following auxiliary uses of school buses would you regard as justifiable, and which as unjustifiable: (1) a picnic trip for the Boy Scouts; (2) a trip to the state university to see a football game; (3) transporting teachers to summer school; (4) transporting school board members to a convention of school officials; and (5) transporting all students to an inter-school contest?

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Chapter XVIII

SCHOOL-INSURANCE ADMINISTRATION

FUNCTION AND SCOPE OF SCHOOL INSURANCE

Purpose of insurance. — In spite of every precaution which may be taken by school officials and employees, school accidents and other misfortunes sometimes occur, and these result in injury to property and to people; moreover, they usually entail expense and often bring distress and suffering to many people. Insurance has the purpose of softening the blow of these misfortunes. It is a contract whereby one party, in consideration of a stipulated premium, promises to pay a stipulated sum upon the occurrence of a stipulated contingency, such as injury to one's person or destruction of one's property.

Types of insurance. — From the point of view of risk covered, several types of school insurance are in use today. Since the various types are so frequently misunderstood by school officials and employees, the more common ones are briefly explained herewith:

1. *Fire.* Pays for loss consisting of injury to or destruction of school property, caused by fire. This is by far the most frequently carried type of school insurance.

2. *Tornado, cyclone, or other type of windstorm.* Pays for loss occasioned by any type of windstorm.

3. *Boiler.* Pays for loss to school property occasioned by an explosion of the boiler which is insured; it also usually pays for personal injuries caused by the explosion.

4. *Liability.* There are two types of liability insurance, namely, *bodily injury* and *property damage.* Bodily injury liability pays on behalf of the

insured all sums which the insured shall become obligated to pay by reason of the liability imposed upon him by law because of bodily injury, caused by accident and arising from the ownership, maintenance, or use of the property insured. Most policies set a limit for each accident.

Property damage liability pays on behalf of the insured all sums which the insured shall become obligated to pay by reason of the liability imposed upon him by law for damages to or destruction of property. It should be emphasized that this type of insurance pays for damages to the other person's property, not for damages to the property of the person insured.

These two types of insurance are coming more and more to be carried on school buses, delivery trucks, and other types of school vehicles. They are carried especially by the rural school districts which usually have pupil transportation programs.

5. *Collision.* There are two types of collision insurance, namely, *full* and *deductible.* Full collision insurance pays for the full loss consisting of damage to or destruction of the transportation vehicle and its equipment, caused by accidental collision with another object, either moving or stationary, or by upset, or while the vehicle is parked or unattended.

Deductible collision insurance pays for loss consisting of damage to or destruction of the transportation vehicle and its equipment, caused by accidental collision with another object . . ., but only for the amount in excess of the deductible sum stated in the policy. The deductible sum may be stated at any amount but the usual amount ranges from $25 to $50.

6. *Accident.* Pays the amount stated in the policy for certain types of injury and for death, and this amount is paid whether the school or its employees were responsible for the accident or not. In many states all school employees are insured under state-wide workmen's compensation laws, and in thousands of other school districts accident insurance is carried on all pupils transported. Many state athletic associations and numerous local athletic associations carry group accident policies on all athletes; these, though, are financed by non-public funds.[1]

7. *Theft, robbery, or pilferage.* Pays for loss consisting of the theft, robbery, or pilferage of the items insured. This type of insurance is often carried on motion-picture projectors, musical instruments, typewriters, microscopes, and similarly valuable equipment; it is also often carried on the contents of school vaults.

The types of insurance, if any, which should be carried by the school district will be determined first of all by the statutes

[1] The last section of Chapter XXV gives a more detailed discussion of the number of injuries to athletes and of protection against them.

and court decisions of the state. As will be seen in the next section of this chapter, the carrying of certain types of insurance is permitted or required in certain states but is prohibited in other states. Provided the expenditure of public funds for it is legal, a given type of insurance should be carried when the risk of loss is too large for the district to assume. Because their risks are not so widely distributed, small school systems are in much greater need of most types of insurance than large systems. Since the fire hazard is the main one with which school officials are concerned, and since fire insurance is the most frequently carried, the remainder of the chapter will emphasize fire insurance.

Legal sanction for insurance. — Legal sanction for certain types of school insurance is more clear than for other types. Although the situation appears incongruous, the sanction is more clear for the protection of school property than for the protection of pupils and school employees. It is more clear for fire insurance than for any other type, because many states have statutes authorizing school districts to carry fire insurance; moreover, the courts have invariably ruled that the power to insure school property against loss by fire is implied in the power which a school board has to manage and control the property of the school district. The decision of the Appellate Court of Indiana is typical of the court decisions on the legality of fire insurance and is quoted herewith:[1]

> We are of the opinion that, under the statutory provisions placing upon the trustees the duty of caring for and managing the school property, [a township trustee] has such implied authority that, in the exercise of his discretion, he may make reasonable expenditures from the special school revenue by way of procuring insurance on such property against fire.

Such reasoning would seem to apply to all other types of property insurance as well as to fire insurance. For example,

[1] *Clark School Township* v. *Home Insurance and Trust Company*, 20 Ind. App. 543, 51 N.E. 107.

it would seem to apply to protection against theft, tornado, earthquake, explosion, water, and collision. It would be incongruous to permit the expenditure of public funds for insurance of property against loss from one hazard and not to permit its insurance against loss from other hazards.

The power of school boards to purchase liability and pupil-accident insurance, both of which are frequently carried by school districts that transport pupils, is not nearly so clear as their power to purchase fire insurance; this is particularly true of pupil-accident insurance. Only one-fourth of the states now have statutes authorizing or requiring school boards to purchase liability insurance; however, the tendency in such legislation is toward permitting or requiring it.

It is known, however, that in practically every state many school boards are carrying liability insurance without express statutory authorization. Without such authorization, the legality of such practice is doubtful, because many attorneys general have ruled that, since school districts are immune to liability, the expenditure of public funds to protect them from a non-existent liability is illegal. It should be noted, too, that a few courts have ruled that school boards cannot purchase liability insurance in the absence of a statute permitting it. In view of the many opinions of attorneys general and of decisions of the courts to the effect that school districts are immune to liability, every liability insurance policy should contain a clause such as the following:

> It is hereby understood and agreed that the Company will not take advantage of any defense other than would be valid and legal if the insured were an individual or private corporation.

Liability for accidents. — The courts have decided almost unanimously that, in the absence of a statute imposing it, school districts are not subject to liability for accidents; indeed, this rule applies to all governmental agencies, not to the schools alone. At present, only the state of Washington has a statute attaching liability to governmental agencies; this

statute affirms that "An action at law may be maintained against a county, incorporated town, school district, or other public corporation . . . for an injury to the rights of the plaintiff arising from some act or omission of such county or other public corporation." [1] The argument most often given in support of the rule of non-liability is that school districts and other governmental units are agents of the state, and since the state cannot be sued without its consent, one of its agents cannot be sued without its consent. This argument has been recently stated in the following language by the Supreme Court of West Virginia: [2]

> The general rule in this country is that a school district, municipal corporation, or school board is not, in the absence of a statute imposing it, subject to liability for injuries to pupils of public schools suffered in connection with their attendance thereat, since such district, corporation, or board, in maintaining schools, acts as an agent for the state and performs a purely public or governmental duty imposed upon it by law for the benefit of the public, for the performance of which it receives no profit or advantage.

Court decisions which differ from the rule just stated are extremely rare. Practically all of them are found in California, New York, and Washington. The courts of these states have decided, particularly during recent years, that a board of education is liable in its corporate capacity for the negligent performance of duties imposed by law upon it. Since the California, New York, and Washington decisions are fairly recent, they may be the beginning of a trend away from the earlier decisions. Justice and logic would seem to impose such liability upon public corporations even though few statutes and court decisions have yet come to recognize it. The king *can* do wrong, and should be held responsible for his torts the same as any other person.

Although the opinions of the courts are in wide disagreement upon the matter, their trend has been to absolve school

[1] *Remington's Revised Statutes of Washington*, Section 951, p. 561.
[2] *Krutili* v. *Board of Education*, 99 W. Va. 466, 129 S.E. 486.

employees from liability for accidents. When negligence has been demonstrated, the courts have frequently held against school employees — much more often than they have held against the board of education in its corporate capacity.

OLD-LINE VERSUS PUBLIC INSURANCE

Insurance with old-line firms. — By far the majority of school districts now carry their insurance with old-line companies, and there is incontrovertible evidence that this business usually shows large profits for these firms. Of course, insurance companies must carry large reserves against catastrophies which might bankrupt them, and this will justify part of the large profits. In a study authorized by the General Assembly of Pennsylvania it was found that the losses from school fires amounted to slightly more than 20 per cent of the premiums; the study covered a five-year period and included a random selection of approximately one-fourth of the school districts of the state exclusive of Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. Similar studies have been made in most of the other states, and all point out the large disparity between insurance premiums paid by school boards and losses paid to these boards by the insurance companies. In its investigation, the Committee on Insurance Research of the National Association of Public School Business Officials stated that the "school districts of 345 cities of 33 states and of 35 Canadian cities, for the ten-year period, 1921–1930, have jointly reported the expenditure of $3.46 for fire insurance protection for each $1.00 returned in settlement of fire losses." [1]

Because of the high cost of insuring their risks with old-line companies, the school officials of many states have organized committees to attempt to secure reduced rates from these companies. In most instances these attempts have been successful. In the remaining instances the companies ignored the

[1] *Insurance Practices and Experience of City School Districts of the United States and Canada*, pp. 169–170.

requests or stated that they could not consider reductions until their reserves were larger.

No insurance. — Many of the school systems of the larger cities do not carry any insurance on their buildings. Most large corporations follow the same practice; for example, few railway systems carry insurance on their property. They believe that their risks are so numerous and so widely distributed that it is cheaper for them "to take a chance." Fires in city school buildings are infrequent, and for them to cause large or total losses is even less frequent.

Of course, the plan of carrying no insurance is practicable only in the large school systems — systems that have a large number of risks widely distributed. It is not practicable in the small school systems, because the loss of one building in such a system would often be a staggering blow to the finances of the system; moreover, the loss of one building in such a system would amount to as much as the insurance premiums for many years.

Community insurance. — Under the community, or self-insurance, plan the school system sets aside each year a certain fund which is invested in high-grade public bonds and is used to replace, or to repair, any property that is destroyed or damaged by fire. It is apparent that this type of insurance, like the *no-insurance* plan, is practicable only in the larger school systems. The plan has been in successful operation for many years in several large school systems. T. C. Holy has the following to say of the success of the plan as experienced in Cincinnati, a city which began the plan in 1912:[1]

> For each year from 1912 to 1924 inclusive, the Cincinnati board of education transferred $25,000 from the general fund to the replacement fund, which with the earnings amounted to $361,000 in 1924. In 1925, the board fixed the maximum of the fund at $350,000. . . . In 1928 the board decided that the funds should be allowed to increase to $500,000. . . .

[1] "State Insurance for School Buildings," *Nation's Schools* (October, 1935), Vol. XVI, pp. 60, 62.

> . . . If all the property losses paid from this fund are distributed over the twenty-two years during which the fund has been in operation, they amount to an average annual loss of $879. . . .

State insurance. — Several states have enacted laws which specify that school property may or shall be insured by the state in a common fund. South Carolina was the first state to establish such a fund in 1900, although school buildings were not included in the plan until 1913. In that state all insurance on all public buildings is now carried by the state at an average overhead expense of conducting the business of approximately 1 per cent of the gross premium income, compared with an average overhead of the old-line companies of approximately 40 per cent.

Wisconsin has had a state-insurance plan since 1903, although the insurance of public school buildings in it is optional with local boards of education; the Wisconsin rates are approximately one-half of those charged by old-line companies. North Dakota has had a compulsory state plan since 1919, and there the rates are approximately three-fourths of those of the old-line companies. Several other states make provision for state insurance on state colleges and other state buildings. Since state insurance has had a successful trial, it is strange that more states have not adopted it. It is natural, of course, to expect the opposition of old-line companies to any movement to extend either state or community insurance.

From various quarters the proposal has recently come that state-insurance funds be created for other types of school risks the same as for fire risks. For example the proposal has been made that the state insure every pupil against injury the same as the state of North Carolina now insures every pupil against injury while being transported to and from school. Many states have workmen's compensation laws which protect school employees against injuries, and it can be reasonably urged that they have "pupils' compensation laws" which would protect the pupils against injuries incurred while going to and from school and even while at school. In North

Carolina the state insures against injury each of the approximately 300,000 pupils transported to and from public schools; the amount which can be spent for the injury or death of any one child is $600, and the total cost to the state for all injuries and deaths amounts to approximately $10,000 annually.

ADMINISTERING OLD-LINE INSURANCE

Since most school insurance is still purchased from old-line companies, suggestions will here be made for effecting economies in the purchase of insurance and for an otherwise efficient administration of old-line insurance, especially fire insurance.

Flat versus co-insurance. — Most school systems which carry insurance on their school buildings carry *flat* insurance. Under this plan of insurance, when a building is completely destroyed, the insurance company pays the total amount for which the building was insured, provided, of course, the building was not insured for more than it was worth. If the building should be damaged by fire to the extent of, say $500,000, the insurance company would pay that amount.

Under a *co-insurance* policy the insured is permitted to buy the amount of insurance which he desires, but whatever the amount which he buys it is stipulated that he shall receive an indemnity for losses in the proportion which he is willing to insure his property and to pay his share of premiums. For example, assuming that he is willing to insure his property at 75 per cent of its value, if a fire should occur he would receive indemnity for 75 per cent of the damage which the fire caused. Under this plan the insured carries a part of the insurance risk, and he secures thereby a lower premium rate. To give an illustration, the formula for a 75 per cent co-insurance policy would be:

$$\text{Indemnity equals } \frac{\text{Amount of policy}}{.75 \times \text{cash value}} \times \text{Amount of loss.}$$

Term of policy. — Since longer terms usually secure lower premiums and save the time of school officials in arranging

for the insurance, it is a good plan to insure for a period of three to five years, rather than for a term of one or two years only. The premium rate on a three-year policy, for example, is usually two and one-half times that for a one-year policy. The policies can be so written that approximately the same amount of premiums will come due each year; this arrangement will assure that the budget load for insurance will be approximately the same each year.

Amount of insurance to carry. — The amount of insurance which should be carried cannot be stated categorically. The amount depends primarily upon such factors as the size of the community, the distribution of the risk, and the hazards involved. A school system which has only one building or few buildings would be justified in insuring its property fairly close to the full value, whereas a school system with several buildings would not feel the necessity of insuring them to full value. Old and non-fireproof buildings should probably be insured at a larger percentage of their full value than fireproof buildings. Likewise rural buildings, especially those which do not have fire protection, should be insured at a higher proportion of their value than city buildings which have fire protection. Of course, it is a waste of funds to insure property for more than its value, because in case of loss only the value of the property will be returned in indemnity.

It is good practice to have appraisals of value made every few years, preferably by representatives of the company which insures the property. The insurable value of any property should be determined by the cost of reproduction minus the depreciation estimate and the cost of parts of the building, such as foundation and basement, which are not likely to be damaged by the hazard against which insurance is carried.

Removing of fire hazards. — Numerous investigations have shown that most boards of education are paying more than necessary for fire insurance because of their failure to eliminate hazards, many of which are minor and could be eliminated at small expense. These hazards are discussed

in a later section of the chapter and need not be dealt with here.

Placing the insurance. — After the decision has been made to carry insurance, and after the amount of the insurance to be carried has been determined, it is necessary to place the insurance with the proper companies. Often the placing of the insurance is a vexatious problem, for the typical community has several insurance agencies, and each agency is naturally desirous of securing the school business. School officials have two problems in this connection. The first is to see that insurance is placed only with reliable companies; the second is to apportion the insurance to the several agencies on a just and equitable basis. Most progressive school systems distribute the insurance to the various agencies on an equal basis or in proportion to the amount of taxes which the agency pays.

Insurance records. — After they have read and approved an insurance policy, school officials should file it in a fireproof safe or vault. A record of each policy should also be made and filed in the safe or vault; this record should indicate the type of policy, the amount of the policy, the dates of the policy's beginning and ending, the rate, the total premium, and the name of the insurance company and its agent. Such records are especially necessary when the school system is large and carries a large amount of insurance.

PREVENTING AND CONTROLLING FIRES

Amount of fire destruction. — According to the National Society for the Prevention of Waste, the fire loss on all property in the United States amounts to more than $500,000,000 annually. No kind of property, except that which is fireproof — and there is very little fireproof property — is free from the danger of fire devastation. Although, compared with other buildings, school buildings are relatively free from fire hazards, they occasionally burn; most of the losses, however, are minor as few buildings burn down. School building fires annually

cause approximately $10,000,000 in damage, and there are approximately six of them daily.

Fire prevention and control. — The chief front on which school officials may attack the problem of fire losses is to *prevent* and *control* them. In his study of school-property insurance, W. T. Melchior found that 88 per cent of the school-building fires in New York State could be classified as strictly *preventable*.[1] Although the percentage which Melchior reports is large, it could be plausibly argued that the estimate is really too small, for are not all fires, except those few which are caused by acts of Nature, such as lightning, preventable? In fact, those few fires which are caused by lightning may be prevented by lightning rods that have been properly installed and are kept in a proper state of repair.

In any campaign, therefore, for the prevention of fires the first efforts of school officials should be directed toward ascertaining the *causes* of the fires. When those causes have been discovered, it remains only to eliminate them — diagnosis precedes the remedy. Melchior's study presents data on the causes of school-building fires in New York State during a period of six years. He finds that defective heating plants, defective chimneys, and defective flues are responsible for approximately 25 per cent of all the fires whose causes are known. He finds also that defective electrical-wiring systems is another prominent cause.[2]

Since the heating plant and the electrical system are the most prevalent causes of fires, particular care should be given to their installation; after they have been installed, they should be kept in excellent repair. Moreover, all fire hazards in and around the building should be removed. Rubbish and similar fire menaces should not be allowed to accumulate in basements, in attics, in storerooms, or in any other places. Matches, wastepaper and similar materials, and ashes from burning grates should be kept in fireproof receptacles. Laboratories, shops, furnace rooms, and domestic science rooms

[1] *Insuring Public School Property*, p. 178. [2] *Ibid.*, p. 122.

SELF-INSPECTION BLANK FOR SCHOOLS

Prepared by

The National Board of Fire Underwriters

Chicago New York San Francisco

Approved and Adopted by

The National Association of Public School Business Officials

If precautions are taken to minimize the danger of fire and to provide for safety in case fire occurs, real progress will be made in safeguarding life and protecting property. Intelligent thought and care in practice can eliminate practically all fires within schools.

INSTRUCTIONS

Inspection to be made each month by the custodian and a member of the faculty at which inspection only Items 1 to 20 need be reported. At the quarterly inspection, a member of the fire department should accompany the above inspectors, and the complete blank should be filled out. The report of each inspection (monthly and quarterly) is to be filed with the Board of Education or School Commissioners.

Questions are so worded that a negative answer will indicate an unsatisfactory condition.

Date .....

Name of School ..... City .....

Class: Elementary.....Junior High.....Senior High .....

Capacity of School?..... Number now enrolled.....

1. Are all exit doors equipped with panic locks?..... Are these locks tested each week to insure ease of operation?..... Do these lock securely so that additional locks, bolts or chains are not necessary?..... Are such additional locks open whenever building is in use?.....
2. Are all outside fire escapes free from obstructions and in good working order?..... Are they used for fire drills?.....
3. Is all heating equipment, including flues, pipes and steam lines:—
   (a) in good serviceable condition and well maintained?.....
   (b) properly insulated and separated from all combustible material by a safe distance?.....
4. Is coal pile inspected periodically for evidences of heating? .....
5. Are ashes placed in *metal* containers used for that purpose *only?* .....
6. Is remote control provided whereby oil supply line may be shut off in emergency?.....
7. Where is outside shut-off valve on gas supply line?.....
8. Check any of the following locations where there are accumulations of waste paper, rubbish, old furniture, stage scenery, etc., and explain under remarks;— attic, basement, furnace room, stage, dressing rooms in connection with stage, other locations .....
9. Is the space beneath stairs free from accumulations or storage of any materials? .....
10. What material or preparation is used for cleaning or polishing floors?..... Quantity on hand?.....Where stored? .....
11. Are approved metal cans, with self-closing covers or lids, used for the storage of *all* oily waste, polishing cloths, etc? .....
12. Are approved metal containers with vapor-tight covers used for all kerosene, gasoline, etc., on the premises? ..... Why are such hazardous materials kept on the premises?
13. Are premises free from electrical wiring or equipment which is defective?..... (If answer is *No*, explain under **Remarks.**)
14. Are only approved extension or portable cords used? .....
15. Are all fuses on lighting or small appliance circuits of 15 amperes or less capacity?.....

FIG. 37a. — Self-Inspection Blank for School Buildings.

16. Are electric pressing irons equipped with automatic heat control or signal and provided with metal stand?

17. Are sufficient fire extinguishers provided on each floor so that not over 100 feet travel is required to reach the nearest unit?

In manual training shops and on stage, 50 feet?

18. Have chemical extinguishers been recharged within a year?

Is date of recharge shown on tag attached to extinguisher?

19. Is building equipped with standpipe and hose having nozzle attached?

Is hose in good serviceable condition?

20. Is a large woolen blanket readily available in the domestic science laboratory for use in case clothing is ignited?

Remarks (Note any changes since last inspection)

The following items to be included in each quarterly inspection:—

21. Building construction: Walls.....Floors..... Roof.....

No. stories .....No. class rooms.....

22. Which sections of buildings are equipped with automatic sprinklers?

23. Are there at least two means of egress from each floor of the building?

Are these so located that the distance measured along the line of travel does not exceed

From the door of any classroom, 125 feet?

From any point in auditorium, assembly hall or gymnasium, 100 feet?

24. Are all windows free from heavy screens or bars?

25. Do all exit doors open outward?

26. Are all interior stairways enclosed?

Are doors to these enclosures of self-closing type?

27. Are windows within 10 feet of fire escapes glazed with wire glass?

28. Are manual training, domestic science, other laboratories and the cafeteria so located that a fire in one will not cut off any exit from the building?

29. Is a smoke-tight projection booth, built of incombustible materials, and vented to the outside, provided for the motion picture machine?

30. Are heating plant and fuel supply rooms cut-off from the main corridors by fire-resistant walls, ceiling and doors?

31. Do all ventilating ducts terminate outside of building?

32. State type of construction of any temporary buildings in school yard.....

33. Is nearest temporary building at least 50 feet from main building?

34. How often are fire drills held?..... Average time of exit?.....

35. Are provisions made for sounding alarm of fire from any floor of building?.....

Is sounding device accessible?..... Plainly marked?

36. Give location of nearest city fire alarm box.....

How far distant from the premises?.....

Remarks

Inspector .....Title .....

Inspector .....Title .....

Inspector .....Title .....

FIG. 37b. — Self-Inspection Blank for School Buildings.

frequently contain materials which are highly combustible, and particular attention should be given to the storing and use of such materials; each of these departments, as well as the corridors, should be provided with chemical or water fire-fighting apparatus and these should be examined at least annually to make certain of their efficiency.

Still more, there should be a periodic inspection of all school buildings to ascertain whether all fire hazards have been eliminated: many school systems have devised a special form for making and recording the results of this inspection. Figure 37 shows a standard form which is widely used for this purpose. The periodic inspection may be made by someone from the central office of the school system or by someone from the local fire department. A "clean-up week," which many communities stage annually, undoubtedly does much to decrease fire losses because it secures the removal of many fire hazards.

In planning and erecting a school building, attention should be given to the incorporation of features which will assist in preventing and controlling fires and in increasing the safety of the occupants of the building. Most states have enacted laws prescribing some of those features. The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, through its subcommittee on safety education, has stated the following standards which the construction of school buildings should meet:[1]

> Buildings should be fireproof throughout. If not wholly fireproof the outer wall and walls separating the school rooms should be fireproof. There must be adequate stairways. All doors should swing outward; there should be fireproof doors leading to the basement. All woodwork and partitions about the heating plant should be protected by asbestos or metal.
>
> Doors leading from buildings should not be secured during school hours in such a manner that they do not yield to pressure from the inside.

[1] *Safety Education in Schools*, pp. 13–14. Copyright by The Century Company.

There should be special provisions for fire escapes. Handrails should be placed on stairs and fire escapes. There must be provisions for safety in school laboratories.

Fire gongs or alarms should be placed in halls or corridors. Motion picture machines using combustible films should be enclosed in fireproof booths. . . .

Fire drills. — Although buildings may have been erected with regard to controlling and extinguishing fires, although fire hazards may have been removed, and although all precautions may have been taken, fires sometimes occur. When they occur, the safety of the occupants of the building should receive first consideration; and always the precaution must be a forethought, rather than an afterthought. There have been several school-building fires during recent years in which many teachers and pupils lost their lives; probably the most horrible of these catastrophes was that in Collinwood, Ohio, in 1908, where 173 pupils and two teachers perished. That and similar catastrophes have caused legislation, which is calculated to protect the lives of pupils, teachers, and other employees in every way possible, to be enacted in every state; in particular, fire drills are required. Most states now require every school to hold a fire drill at least once each month.

Many advantages would come from standardizing throughout a school system the main features of fire drills. Figure 38 gives helpful suggestions for effecting such standardization. Indeed, there would be obvious advantages in standardizing certain features of these drills throughout the state, and even throughout the nation. Of course, the particular routine for conducting a fire drill in any school building should be largely determined by such characteristics of the building as the number of exits, the width of the stairways and corridors, and the number of pupils. In most states the state fire marshal or the chief state school official makes available a list of suggestions for the conduct of fire drills within the state. Another excellent list of suggestions may be procured from the National Board of Fire Underwriters, New York City, N. Y.

Pittsburgh
Public Schools

Safety
Memorandum

FIRE DRILLS

PURPOSE: The purpose of a fire drill is to establish a routine for the efficient and safe removal of pupils and teachers from a school building in the event of a fire or other emergency, and to develop a behavior pattern in children for meeting emergencies in adult life.

MINIMUM REQUIREMENT: A fire drill "once a month....which said drill shall include....the complete removal of the scholars and teachers to a place of safety on the ground outside." (Section 4701 Pennsylvania School Laws.) This applies to the regular term and summer schools.

RESPONSIBILITY: The conduct of drills is the responsibility of the principal. Teachers lead or follow their lines according to the plan adopted. Except to meet special conditions, drills should be unannounced, and pupils should not be permitted to secure wraps. Drills should not be held at dismissal time.

DRILL SUGGESTIONS

Movement Factors:

1. Is there a master-plan for drills with specific assignments posted in each room? Is there a routine for drills at all times of day? Are stopping locations assigned outside the building and sufficiently removed to avoid (a) danger of falling objects, (b) pupils running back into building, (c) interference with fire department?
2. Are pupil patrols with alternates organized to assist in drills?
3. Are provisions made to assist crippled pupils, pupils with heart trouble and other special cases?
4. Is a positive check made to assure that all pupils, teachers, clerks, and visitors participate in the drill? Is the doctor's office checked? Principal's office? Classrooms? Toilets? Rooms with likely high noise levels - music, auditorium, pool, gymnasium and shops? Are all checks made before recall bell?
5. Are swimming classes assembled at nearest exit and contact established to determine if it is a practice drill? Is a similar procedure followed for students in dressing rooms and showers? Is a similar procedure followed for gymnasium classes when cold weather makes it inadvisable for them to vacate the building?
6. Is contact established by cafeteria, attendance and other special departments with adult workers to determine if it is a practice drill?
7. Will the drill be effective when the principal or any teachers are absent? Will it be effective the first day of school?

Physical Factors:

1. Are fire escapes and exit facilities checked daily?
2. Is the drill signal unmistakable, known to everyone, heard everywhere, checked weekly?
3. Where there is a sprinkler system, is the drill signal identical with the sprinkler alarm signal?
4. Is full width of stairs utilized, by double lines or otherwise?
5. Are obstruction drills held? (NOTE: Obstruction should be a flag, poster or other insignia; it should not be a physical barricade that in itself is a hazard.)
6. Is location of nearest city fire alarm box known by principal, clerk, and custodian?

Ben G. Graham
Superintendent of Schools

April 1939.

FIG. 38. — Fire-Drill Instructions, Used in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What types of insurance should a school system carry? Why?

2. What steps may school officials, teachers, and janitors take to remove fire hazards from school property? Discuss both for city and for rural schools.

3. Do you favor state insurance for school property, such as a few states have? Why or why not? Should all school officials be required to insure their property in such a fund? Explain.

4. Would you recommend compulsory fire insurance of the property of school districts? Explain your views. Would your recommendations apply to all districts with equal cogency? Explain.

5. What are the arguments for and against co-insurance of school property?

6. Of what value would an appraisal of school property be? How would you proceed to make such an appraisal? How often should it be made?

7. Would you recommend that school property be insured in mutual companies? Why or why not?

8. Outline a plan which school officials could practicably use in distributing school-property insurance among the various insurance agencies of a community.

9. Should liability and pupil accident insurance be carried on school buses? Why or why not?

10. What factors determine the fire-insurance rate on a given school building?

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PART V

Administration of the Pupil Personnel

Chapter XIX

ADMINISTRATION OF PUPIL ATTENDANCE AND CENSUS

A. PUPIL ATTENDANCE

EVOLUTION OF COMPULSORY-ATTENDANCE LAWS

The Massachusetts laws of 1642 and 1647. — The belief that their children should have an education was deeply ingrained in the consciousness of our forefathers; this was particularly the belief of the settlers of the New England colonies. As early as 1642 — which was only thirty-five years after the founding of the first permanent English settlement (at Jamestown, Virginia) — Massachusetts Colony enacted the first compulsory-education law in America. And there is evidence that a few communities in Massachusetts, without any compulsion or suggestion on the part of the colony, had established, as early as 1636, schools which were truly public. The law of 1642 was colony-wide in operation; moreover, its benefits applied to all children, whether they were rich or poor. The law provided that "the selectmen in every town shall have power to take account of all parents and masters as to their children's education and employment. . . . They [the selectmen] are to see that the children can read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws of the country, . . . " This law, which was the first carrying out of the conception of the state that all children should have a certain quantum of education, must be regarded

as one of the most significant educational laws of all time, whether in this or any other country.

The Massachusetts law of 1647 went a step further than the one of 1642. Whereas the law of 1642 did not place any responsibility on the community to establish a school, that of 1647 gave such responsibility. The law of 1647 — sometimes called the Old Deluder Satan Act — required that a grammar school [1] must be established in every town having a hundred or more families; moreover, it stipulated that a teacher must be employed in every community having fifty or more families, and he was to teach to read and write all children who might wish to take advantage of his tutelage.

These laws embodied some of the underlying principles of the American school system. They first gave voice to the educational ideals of the people. They affirmed that education was so important to the well-being of society that it could not be left to the whims of the individual nor to the desires of the people of any community. They established the principle that for its protection the state had the right and the obligation to decide the kind and the amount of education which should be demanded of each individual and the kind of schools which should be required of each community. They also affirmed the principle that schools could be financed by compulsory taxation.

The first compulsory school-attendance laws. — Space will not permit an exposition of the large amount of significant school legislation enacted between the Massachusetts laws of 1642 and 1647 and the establishment of the first compulsory school-attendance law in 1852; several volumes would be required for such an exposition. Knowing the abiding faith of the forefathers in education, it is difficult to understand why the first compulsory-attendance law was not enacted until 1852, over two hundred years after the enactment of the first compulsory-education law. The reader will note that

[1] The grammar school was a secondary school. It was succeeded by the academy, which was succeeded in turn by the high school.

compulsory school attendance and *compulsory education* are not used here as synonymous terms. Compulsory school-attendance laws came much later than compulsory-education laws.

Although the concept came tardily, it was eventually seen by legislatures that the practice of compelling communities to establish schools, without requiring children to attend them, was wasteful. Until 1852 there was no compulsion on the part of the state that children should attend the schools which the communities had been required to provide. It is interesting to observe that Massachusetts was the first state to take that step. Indeed, Massachusetts has been a leader in starting and fostering many educational movements which have proved so valuable that they have become ubiquitous; no other state even approaches her record in this regard.

Later compulsory school-attendance laws. — The other states enacted compulsory school-attendance laws in due time. The second state to provide such legislation was Vermont in 1867.[1] New Hampshire, Michigan, and Washington followed next in 1871. By 1910 all states had enacted such laws, with the exception of Alabama, Georgia, Florida, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Texas. Mississippi was the last state to adopt a compulsory-attendance law, its legislation being enacted in 1918.

A review of the history of the compulsory school-attendance laws shows that such legislation usually came grudgingly. In the early days, the laws were very flimsy. For example, the age span for compulsory attendance was not nearly so long as now; there was no educational standard for pupils as there is everywhere today; no state had enacted a child-labor law; many excuses could be legally given for non-attendance; and the means for enforcing the laws left much to be desired.

[1] For the dates of the enactment of the first compulsory-attendance law in each of the states, see *U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin*, 1914, No. 2, p. 10. Of course, a few states had not enacted such laws at the time of the publication of this bulletin in 1914.

SOME IMPLICATIONS OF COMPULSORY-ATTENDANCE LAWS

A better type of education and of educational conditions necessary. — The tendency has been to increase the number of years and the number of weeks each year during which the school requires that the pupil shall be under its tutelage. Increasing the age span for compulsory school attendance and strengthening the attendance laws in other ways places a responsibility upon the state and the community for seeing that the type of education which the school provides shall be the best that can be afforded. Briefly stated, the logic of the situation is: if the state can require the pupil to attend school for several years, for several months during the year, and for several hours during the day, then the state has the obligation of seeing that the educational provisions made for the child are the very best. Any other conditions would be incongruous. It would be criminal to require the pupil to attend school in an unsafe or an insanitary building. It would be unjust to place him under the tutelage of an unqualified teacher. It would be unfair to give him a curriculum not adapted to his needs. It would be inhumane to require him to attend school if his physical condition were not such as to permit him to partake to the fullest extent of the instruction which the school has provided for him.

Assistance to parents. — In the early days, one of the most frequent excuses which parents gave for not regularly sending their children to school was that the children were needed at home to help with the work. This excuse was given in the rural communities especially, and most communities in those days were rural. Parents sometimes claimed that they were financially unable to send the children to school. The first step in eliminating this excuse was the enactment of laws which provided for the purchase by the public of textbooks for children of indigent parents. The next step was for the public to provide clothing for such children. Practically all states have taken the two steps just mentioned. The final step

will have been taken when financial assistance is given to indigent parents to act as a substitute for the earnings of their children; indeed, that final step has already been taken by several states.

THE PROBLEM OF NON-ATTENDANCE

Amount of non-attendance. — According to statistics of the United States Office of Education,[1] in each 100 pupils enrolled in the elementary and secondary schools approximately 15 are absent daily; that is, the percentage of *average daily attendance* is approximately 85, and the percentage of non-attendance is approximately 15. It should be realized, of course, that the percentages of attendance and non-attendance just given are based upon *enrollments* and that thousands of children of school age are not enrolled in school; many of them are not in school because schools, especially secondary ones, are not available to them. The United States Office of Education estimates that only approximately 90 per cent of all children five to seventeen years of age, inclusive, are enrolled in public and private schools. Although the present percentages on enrollment and attendance cannot be pointed to with pride, it is encouraging to know that they are improving gradually.

As would be surmised, the percentage of average daily attendance varies from state to state, from community to community, and in other regards. As a rule, the Northern states have a higher percentage of average daily attendance than the Southern states. The cities have a higher percentage than the rural communities. Certain communities within the same state, or within the same county, have much higher percentages than others. Certain schools in a given school system have much higher percentages than other schools in the same school system. Certain teachers have much higher

[1] See *Statistics of State School Systems.* (Published biennially by the U.S. Office of Education.)

percentages than other teachers in the same building. There are explanations, of course, for these differences — reasons which we cannot take the time here to discuss.

The loss resulting from non-attendance. — Non-attendance constitutes one of our greatest educational wastes. In the schools of the nation approximately 15 per cent of the desks and other pupil stations are unoccupied daily. The large financial waste which results from this non-attendance becomes evident when it is realized that the cost of running the school is practically the same whether the pupils are in attendance or not.[1] The teacher is under contract, and must be paid the same for a part school as for a whole school. Moreover, the cost of operating the school plant and of furnishing school supplies is practically the same whether the pupils are in attendance or not. The people of the United States now spend for elementary and secondary education over two billion dollars annually; if 15 per cent of the pupils are absent daily, it is apparent that the resulting financial waste, when computed on the total school expenditure, is colossal. It will be shown later that much of this non-attendance — probably most of it — is unnecessary; indeed, much of it is illegal and is the result of unenforced laws. Perfect attendance is, of course, the ideal to be kept in mind, but it can seldom be attained; all attempts to secure it should be guided by common sense and the rule of reason, and it should be realized that there are many legitimate excuses for non-attendance.

The greatest loss, however, is not the *financial* loss to the public. The largest waste is the educational loss to the pupil. Non-attendance means that the pupil has been cheated of some of his rightful patrimony; it means that he has not been able to partake of all the advantages which society has provided for him at large expense. A frequent result of non-attendance is pupil failure. If the pupil does not fail, he falls

[1] Most states now distribute state aid on the basis of average daily attendance, and any pupil absence results in a loss of state funds to the school system.

behind in his work, becomes discouraged, and desires to quit school.

METHODS OF IMPROVING ATTENDANCE

In organizing and conducting a campaign to decrease non-attendance, the first step to take is to ascertain the *causes* of non-attendance. When this diagnosis has been made, it remains only to prescribe the proper remedies, that is, to take steps to remove the causes. To remove non-attendance requires that school officials and employees become social and educational diagnosticians. Although the causes of non-attendance have been found to differ somewhat from school system to school system, from school to school in the same system, and from teacher to teacher in the same school, the most frequent causes are the following: (1) illness, either on the part of the pupil or on that of members of his family; (2) great distance from school; (3) work at home; (4) death in the family; (5) slow progress through school; and (6) lack of clothing, textbooks, and other necessities.

In the early history of compulsory-attendance laws, little or no attempt was made to ascertain the causes of non-attendance and to remove them. In those days school officials and employees generally regarded non-attendance as a crime, and force was looked upon as the only weapon which could be effectively used in combating it. Parents and pupils were threatened when pupils failed to attend school, and pupils were "strong-armed" to school by the attendance officer. There was little or no attempt on the part of school officials and employees to understand the pupil's case; seldom was sympathy extended. Fortunately, those primitive methods are rapidly becoming extinct and methods of understanding such as the following are being used.

Removing sickness. — Many studies have shown that sickness, especially the common cold, is the chief cause of non-attendance. Teachers and school officials can do much to remove this cause by helping the pupils to maintain a high

standard of health. Other factors being equal, school systems which have a thoroughgoing plan of health supervision have a smaller amount of sickness, and consequently a less amount of non-attendance than school systems which do not have an efficient plan of health supervision.

Removing the distance factor. — Distance from school is another frequent cause of non-attendance, especially among the pupils in rural schools. Under ideal conditions, elementary school children would not be required to walk more than one mile, and high school students would not be required to walk more than a mile and a half. Most states have realized the unjustness of requiring pupils to attend school when transportation facilities for those children who live more than a stipulated distance from school are not provided. Most states now require school officials to provide transportation for all elementary school children who live more than two miles from the nearest school. A few states require school officials to provide transportation for high school pupils as well as for elementary school pupils; of course, the distance beyond which transportation is required for high school pupils is greater than for elementary pupils. Statistics show that school transportation reduces non-attendance, and that it reduces it particularly during the severe winter months.

Work at home. — Necessity for the pupil to do work at home is another chief cause of non-attendance. If such work is necessary for the support of the child, who should be in school, or is necessary for the support of the child's family, society is obligated to give financial assistance to such a child and his family. First of all, school supplies and clothing should be furnished *the pupil* from the poverty-stricken home. Moreover, in extreme cases, financial aid for food, clothing, and shelter should be furnished *the family*.

Slow progress and low marks. — Slow progress in school and low marks constitute another great cause of non-attendance. The pupil who has failed, or who is not getting along well at school, is likely to become discouraged and to want to

quit school. The school, therefore, should do everything possible to help the pupil to succeed. Failure of pupils should be reduced to a minimum; in fact, under ideal conditions it would be eliminated. Promotions on condition or probation should be practiced frequently, because several studies have shown that a large percentage of the pupils, who are promoted on condition or probation, do the work of the next grade very acceptably. It is more humane to give the pupil a chance to succeed than to fail him before giving him that chance.

In addition to the danger of discouraging the pupil, there is the danger that low marks will develop in the pupil an inferiority complex or will cause him to have a grudge against the teacher and the school — a grudge that may remain with him throughout life. Frustration is likely to lead to vicious aggression. In an ideal school organization each pupil would be given scholastic marks in terms of his ability as well as his accomplishment. If the pupil does not have the ability to do more than a certain amount of work in arithmetic, in reading, or in other subjects, it would seem unjust to penalize him when he has done the best he can. Indeed, to expect more of a pupil than his ability indicates he can do is to believe in miracles; such a policy would be as absurd as to attempt to put two gallons of liquid into a one-gallon container, or to drive a ten-ton truck over a bridge which will support only a five-ton load.

The teacher's responsibility. — The chief responsibility for securing regular attendance devolves upon the teacher. The teacher is in closest contact with the pupil, and he should therefore know more about the pupil's case than any other person. The chief responsibility of the teacher for securing excellent attendance is to keep the pupil interested in his schoolwork with the end in view that he will not wish to miss a day of school unless the absence is unavoidable. When a pupil is absent, the teacher should immediately ascertain the cause, and take whatever steps are necessary to remove it. The teacher should guard against pupils coming to school

when they are sick; overstimulation of attendance is often more injurious to the school than understimulation. Arch O. Heck reports the following devices which he has found various teachers and school officials to be using successfully in improving attendance:[1]

1. The names of pupils who have been perfect in attendance for a week are listed on the blackboard. Each week thereafter when a pupil is perfect in attendance a star is placed after his name.

2. A contest may be started between two or more rooms to secure the highest percentage of attendance. The results are graphed each week, comparing all rooms in the contest. This graph is placed on the blackboard or upon a specially prepared chart so that the class can see it.

3. Instead of using the chart, or in addition to using it, some school principals provide a banner or a pennant which goes each week to the room having the highest percentage of attendance.

4. Some teachers report that they have their class organized for the purpose of improving attendance. The student officers then check up causes of poor attendance and do what they can to remove them.

5. Sometimes offending youngsters, those with bad attendance records, are called upon to assume some responsibility or duty in connection with the management of the class.

6. Interesting opening exercises are often resorted to with good effect.

7. In the smaller communities the newspapers print the names of those children who have had perfect attendance during the past school month, semester, or year.

8. Those who are tardy have to remain after school and make up the time missed.

9. An old custom still used in some places, is to give a half holiday every four weeks to those who have been perfect in attendance.

10. Some teachers give certificates of perfect attendance each month. . . .

Need for better laws and their enforcement. — Many studies have shown that the states which have the best attendance laws, and which make the best provisions for their enforcement, are the ones which have the best percentages of average daily attendance. School officials and employees

[1] *Administration of Pupil Personnel*, pp. 120–121. Copyright by Ginn and Company.

have the responsibility, therefore, of working for adequate laws and for proper machinery for their enforcement. In many states the age span for school attendance is too brief, the educational standard which will permit pupils to leave school is too low, too many legal excuses for absence are permitted, and the machinery for enforcing the laws is clogged by politics or has other shortcomings.

THE ATTENDANCE DEPARTMENT

The attendance officer. — During recent years all states have established some kind of machinery for the administration and the enforcement of school attendance. A few of the larger states have a supervisor of attendance connected with the state department of education; of course, such a supervisor always works with and through local attendance officials. The laws of most states provide that every county shall have an attendance officer for the rural schools, and that every city school system shall also have an attendance officer.

In the early days, the attendance officer was merely an "officer." He was expected to use "main force and brute strength" in getting into school all pupils who were amenable to the provisions of the compulsory-attendance laws. He received reports from teachers, principals, and superintendents regarding pupils who were absent, and he proceeded forthwith to visit the homes and to give the pupils and their parents the proper "jacking-up." In those days, physical strength and courage were the prime qualifications for attendance officers.

It has gradually come to be realized, however, that physical strength and courage are not the main qualifications for an efficient attendance officer. Educational qualifications are more important than the qualifications just mentioned. The modern attendance officer must be, in the main, a social servant and a guidance functionary.[1] He must understand the causes of non-attendance, and he must have a desire to

[1] In many school systems the attendance officer is expected to take the school census and to issue work permits to eligible pupils.

help to remove those causes. He must be competent to go to pupils and to parents or guardians for the purpose of discussing with them in a spirit of kindliness and helpfulness the provisions of the attendance laws and the evils of non-attendance. Strong-arm methods, although occasionally necessary, should be used only as a last resort.

Every state should establish, by statute, certain standard qualifications which attendance officers should possess. It is not visionary to urge that every attendance officer should be certified by the state just as teachers are everywhere certified today. They should possess as much college preparation as teachers. It should be known that they are prepared for educational and social work. A few states have already adopted the standards recommended, and every year sees other states adopting them.

To secure persons with the preparation recommended will require that the position be much more professionalized than it is today. Instead of being a political office, as is often the case, the position must be awarded only to those persons who are the best qualified. Moreover, secure tenure of position must be guaranteed as long as the work is efficiently performed. Still more, adequate pay should attach to the office. A dole of two or three dollars a day, or four or five hundred dollars a year, which is the usual amount of pay in most states, is not likely to secure the most desirable type of employee.

The duties of the attendance officer should be regarded as the following:

1. To check the enrollment at the beginning of the school with the census, and to secure the enrollment of all pupils of school age.
2. To secure the co-operation of the officials and employees of private and parochial schools in enforcing the compulsory-attendance laws.
3. To make a prompt investigation of all cases of absence referred to him and to make a prompt report on the causes of the absence and the action taken in all absence investigated.
4. To follow up all transfers of pupils from one school to another in order that non-attendance may be reduced or eliminated.

5. To know the school laws and school policies in order that he may work co-operatively with school officials and employees.

6. To co-operate with all welfare, social, religious, and other agencies in promoting school attendance and the general welfare of the pupils.

7. To make case studies of habitual truants.

8. To take court action against truants when all other means have failed.

9. To keep adequate records and to make daily, weekly, monthly, and annual reports of his activities and services.

10. To issue work permits to pupils eligible for them and to see that the child-labor laws as they pertain to pupils are enforced.

The visiting teacher or school nurse as attendance officer. — Many school systems are delegating to the school nurse or to a visiting teacher the function of performing the duties of the attendance officer. As a rule, school nurses and visiting teachers are well prepared for this type of work. They are more likely to attempt to ascertain, and to be qualified to ascertain, the causes of non-attendance and to be more sympathetic with parents and pupils. They work constantly with the pupils and parents.

In every large school, for example, of five or six hundred pupils there might well be a visiting teacher or a nurse attached to the school staff. In smaller schools one visiting teacher or school nurse could care for two or more schools. Recent years have shown a noticeable tendency toward the adoption of this plan of administering school attendance.

Enforcing attendance in private and parochial schools. — Approximately 10 per cent of the pupils of the nation attend private or parochial schools. The policy of the state has always been to permit such non-state schools to operate, but to see that they were maintained at certain standards which the state has decided upon as being necessary for the welfare of the individual and of the state. The private and parochial schools should be amenable to the provisions of the compulsory-attendance laws the same as the public schools. They should be required to make the same reports

on attendance and non-attendance which the public schools make. Their enrollment should be checked with the school census the same as that of the public schools. The school-attendance department should have the responsibility of ascertaining and eliminating non-attendance in such schools the same as in the public schools. Fortunately, there are few private and parochial schools today that do not wholeheartedly accept the recommendations just made.

CARE OF HABITUAL TRUANTS

Pupils who are persistently and willingly absent from school are called *truants.* Since truancy often leads to crime and other anti-social behavior, everything possible shoud be done by the school to prevent it. In preventing it, teachers, principals, and pupil-personnel agencies stand at the first line of defense. They should make a detailed study of each youth who is in danger of becoming a truant and should take steps to prevent him from falling over that precipice. For all cases of truancy there are causes, and these causes should be ascertained and eliminated by the school; in this program, the school can often be aided by social and other agencies of the community. In dealing with truancy and delinquency "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." Truants and delinquents are not inherently "bad"; they have become socially handicapped through an unfortunate environment.

During recent years the larger school systems have organized special schools and classes to supplement the individual efforts aforementioned for the control of truancy and delinquency. Most of these schools and classes keep the pupils during the school day only. A few school systems, however, have organized parental schools which take the worst offenders from their old environment and keep them 24 hours a day. The attempt of all these schools and classes is, of course, to "reform" the pupils as soon as possible and to send them back to a regular school environment.

B. SCHOOL CENSUS

LEGAL STATUS OF THE SCHOOL CENSUS

An annual requirement. — All states now require a school census to be taken periodically, usually annually. In a few states, the annual pupil count by enumerators has been abolished, and instead parents are required to register their children each year; there the chief obligation devolves upon the parent. All other states provide for a periodic house to house canvass in order that all children of school-census age shall be enumerated. The school census, or school enumeration as it is often called, usually includes such facts as: name, age, physical condition, and address of the pupil.

The time of taking the census is usually prescribed by state law. Although other months are occasionally used, April, May, June, and July are the popular months for taking the census, and June is the most popular month of all. Only a few school systems have adopted a continuous census — a practice recommended by all school authorities, which will be discussed at length in a later section of this chapter.

Census-age limits and span. — Many different age limits for taking the school census are in use in the several states; these limits are everywhere prescribed by state law. The most frequently prescribed limits are 6 to 21. Other limits frequently prescribed are birth to 21, 5 to 21, and 6 to 18. Just why there should be these wide differences in the census-age limits and the census-age spans is difficult to comprehend. There is much argument for co-operation among the state departments of education in attempting to secure a certain amount of standardization in these matters. One great advantage which would accrue from such standardization is that school statistics among the several states would be more comparable and meaningful.

PURPOSES OF THE CENSUS

Distribution of school funds. — The school census was instituted to serve as a basis for the distribution of certain

school funds. Some method had to be utilized for the distribution of the income from the permanent school fund and for the distribution of state funds, and the school census was adopted for that purpose. This, of course, required that there be an annual counting of the children in order that each district might secure its proper share of the school moneys.

In the early days, the above-mentioned purpose was more important than it is at present; in those days the federal, state, and county school funds were universally distributed on the census basis. That basis is still employed in several states in spite of the fact that there are much better bases. The census basis is not the best basis, because it does not take into account the ability, the need, and the effort of the local community. For example, it does not stimulate the community to get the children into school and to keep them there. It gives a community which has a large private or parochial school population more for its public schools than communities which do not have large private and parochial school populations. Because of those shortcomings, the tendency is to adopt some basis other than the census for the distribution of school moneys.

Carrying out the educational program. — The school census may be used in carrying out the educational program of the community. For example, it gives several months' or years' notice regarding how many beginning pupils will be enrolled in school. Such information enables school officials to provide in ample time the necessary buildings, equipment, teachers, supplies, and other facilities for the enrollment.

Enforcing the compulsory-attendance laws. — The school census aids in enforcing the compulsory-attendance laws because it lists the pupils who should be in school, and gives the ages and the addresses of all such pupils. With such information at hand school officials can investigate all pupils who do not enroll in school or do not attend regularly.

METHODS OF TAKING THE CENSUS

The old-fashioned census. — According to the old-fashioned method of taking the census, an enumerator, or census-taker, was employed for a few days or weeks each year to make the house-to-house canvass for the purpose of securing the necessary information on each child of school-census age. Usually the census-taker was paid a certain amount per day or per child enumerated. The job of taking the census was often given to some needy person or to a "politician"; qualifications for doing the task were a secondary consideration. More unfortunately still, after the census was taken, little use was made of it; frequently, the data were written on large sheets of paper which were rolled up and deposited somewhere to collect dust after a summary had been made for the appropriate county office or for the state department of public instruction. The methods just described still obtain in many school districts. Arch O. Heck has summarized in the following words the deficiencies of the old-fashioned census:[1]

> 1. Accurate data regarding the children of the district can never be had except at the moment the census is completed. This is owing to the fact that, strange as it may seem, people persist in being born, in dying, and in changing places of residence. . . .
>
> 2. Assuming that the data are accurate, they are recorded in such a way that it is difficult to secure needed information. . . .
>
> 3. The material is unreliable. Enumerators often fail to make an actual house-to-house visitation. . . .
>
> 4. Even when the census-taker actually visits the home, opportunities for false reports are plentiful. The parent can falsify regarding the child's age with little likelihood of detection. . . .
>
> 5. It is difficult to use the census to help enforce the compulsory-attendance laws, for, in order to do this, it must be compared with enrollment so as to locate nonattendants. . . .
>
> 6. It is difficult to compare the names on the census sheets with those on the enrollment sheets. The census sheets contain the names of children listed by blocks and not alphabetically. The school enrollments are alphabetically arranged by classes. . . .

[1] *Administration of Pupil Personnel*, pp. 149–151. Copyright by Ginn and Company.

7. The comparison is rendered more difficult by the fact that census ages seldom correspond with compulsory school ages. . . .

An efficient census. — An efficient census may be characterized as one which aids in carrying out the purposes for which the census has been established. In preceding paragraphs it was stated that historically the census has had three purposes: (1) to afford a basis for distributing school funds; (2) to aid in carrying out the educational program; (3) to assist in enforcing the compulsory-attendance laws. It was noted, however, that the first purpose is rapidly becoming extinct.

The chief characteristics which a school census should possess are *accuracy, adequacy,* and *simplicity.* Because of the expense involved in taking it, an inaccurate census is worse than none. An adequate census is one which assists in carrying out the purposes of the census. All information which will assist in carrying out those purposes should be secured, and all information not necessary should be omitted. The information should be collected, organized, and filed in such a way that it will be readily available and usable. For the filing of the information it is best to use cards, in order that the cards may be shuffled about, if necessary, and be more readily used; sheets of paper are more difficult to handle than cards.

The census should be *continuous.* The tendency everywhere today in both theory and practice is toward making it continuous. The time should soon come when the state laws requiring an annual pupil-count will be repealed, and machinery will be established for the taking and the keeping of a continuous census. Such a plan is in operation in many school systems at present. Herewith is described a method for taking and keeping a continuous census. Figure 39 shows the obverse and the reverse sides of "The Uniform School-Census Card" — a card which provides for a year to year record of the child.

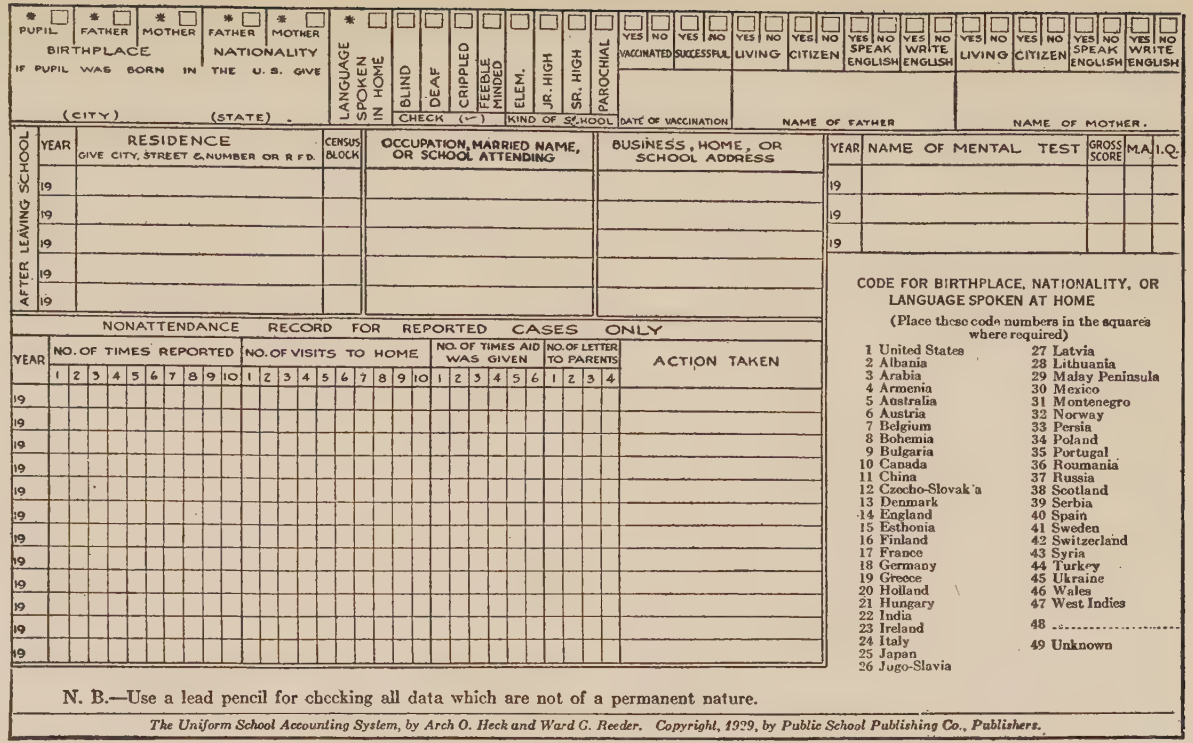


FIG. 39a. — Uniform School-Census Card (obverse) for Visible File.

FORM 8-1

THE UNIFORM SCHOOL CENSUS CARD

	YEAR	RESIDENCE (Give City, Street & Number or R.F.D.)	CENSUS BLOCK	OCCUPATION OF FATHER	YEAR	SCHOOL BUILDING ATTENDED	ENROLLMENT MO.	ENROLLMENT DA.	ENROLLMENT △ WHY LATE	DAYS ABSENT	⊖ WHY ABSENT	WITHDRAWAL MO.	WITHDRAWAL DA.	WITHDRAWAL ○ WHY
BEFORE ENTERING SCHOOL	19				19									
	19				19									
	19				19									
	19				19									
	19				19									
	19				19									
AFTER ENTERING SCHOOL	19				19									
	19				19									
	19				19									
	19				19									
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	19				19									
	19				19									

CODES (Place these code numbers in the squares where required)

⊕ Authority for Birthdate
1 Birth Certificate
2 Passport
3 Bible
4 Baptismal Certificate
5 Physician's Examination
6 Parent's Oath
7 Parent's Statement
8 Pupil's Statement
9 ----------

△ Why Enrolled Late
1 Illegal Nonattendance
2 Physical Condition
3 Broken Family
4 Employed
5 Illness in Family
6 Death in Family
7 Quarantine
8 Moving to District
9 ----------
10 ----------

⊖ Cause of Absence
1 Sickness
2 Other Legal Reasons
3 Illegal Employment
4 Parental Neglect
5 Truancy
6 ----------
7 ----------

○ Why Withdrew from School
1 Death
2 Marriage
3 College
4 Overage
5 Moved
6 Employed
7 Committed to Institution
8 Mental Condition
9 Physical Condition
10 Economic Reasons
11 ----------

NAME OF CHILD (LAST) (FIRST) (MIDDLE)	RACE	SEX	DATE OF BIRTH	⊕	LAST SCHOOL GRADE COMPLETED 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

FIG. 39b. — Uniform School-Census Card (reverse) for Visible File.

Such a card should be filled out and kept for every child under 18 years of age; school districts so desiring may extend the age to 21 years.[1] All cards should be on file in the attendance office of the school district. As births occur, and as children move into the district, census cards should be prepared for these children, and the cards should be inserted in the *live* files. When children die, pass beyond the census age, or move from the school district, their census cards should be removed from the live file and placed in the *dead* file. The live file, therefore, should contain, assuming that the census ages are from birth to 18 years of age, a census card for every child under 18 years of age residing in the school district. The dead file should contain the census cards of all children who have at *any time* been on the census list, but who are not now on it.

The census card should be so designed that a year-by-year record may be kept of the child (1) from his birth until he enters school, (2) during his entire period of school attendance, and (3) from the time he withdraws from school until he reaches his eighteenth birthday. From the birth of the child until he enters school, the data required on the card need not include more than the following: (1) name, (2) birth date, (3) residence, (4) name of parents, (5) birthplace, and (6) nationality of child and parents. After the child withdraws from school, only those data concerning his residence and occupation need be recorded on the card.

The pre-school record of the child should be kept in order that school officials may be constantly informed regarding the prospective school enrollment for, say, five or six years in the future, and that they may know the sections of the school district in which to expect large, small, or no increases in enrollment. Such facts will enable school officials to provide teachers, buildings, equipment, supplies, and other facilities for the necessary number of children.

[1] From A. O. Heck and W. G. Reeder, *The Uniform School Accounting System*, pp. 21–22. Public School Publishing Company.

The pre-school record will also make possible a more rigid enforcement of the compulsory-attendance laws. Correct birth dates of children can be secured shortly after birth. If this information is secured at that time, it will be more difficult for parents to enroll their children in school at too early an age, to enroll them later than they should, or to withdraw them before they have reached the upper limit of the compulsory-attendance laws.

The post-school record, which should be kept for each child until he reaches 18 years of age, enables school authorities to be of service to pupils after they have withdrawn from school; for example, it makes available information concerning the types of work which are open to young people from the ages of 14 or 16 to 18 years in that particular locality. Contemplated changes in curricula, and the development of a program of pupil guidance, must be based largely upon such information.

If the census card is to be of the greatest possible service, a *continuing* census must be put into operation. A school system does not have a continuous census merely when a census card has been made out and filed for each child of school-census age in the district. If the census is to be continuous, the census file must be kept *up-to-date*, so that at any time during the school year the file will contain a census card for each child of census age residing in the district at that time, and will contain no cards of children who do not reside in the district at that time. This means that information must be received constantly concerning (1) births, (2) children moving into the district, (3) deaths of children, (4) children moving from the district, and (5) children passing their eighteenth birthday. As such data are received, the census files must have cards added or withdrawn. In order, therefore, to be up-to-date the census file must contain at all times not only a card for every child of census age who is residing in the district, but the data on the card must be accurate and up-to-date. This means that when the residence of the pupil changes, or

when the pupil goes from one grade to another, these changes must be indicated upon the census card. The following directions, if followed, will aid in keeping the census continuous:

1. Put in operation an efficient set of transfer slips.[1] Such a set of transfer slips will make it possible for the census office to secure information promptly concerning all changes in address, or in the school attended by the pupil.

2. Check the census cards each semester or year (depending upon whether the school promotes semiannually or annually) with the principal's office-record card.[2] If the census cards are arranged alphabetically by school buildings, and if the principal has his office-record cards arranged alphabetically in his office, the task of matching each pupil's census card and office-record card, and of correcting the census card in accord with the data appearing upon the office-record card, will be easy and can be quickly done. Such a comparison should be made preferably at the beginning of each semester or year after the office record has been corrected and is up-to-date.

3. An organization of pupils could be effected so that some pupil would become responsible for reporting to his principal all families who move into or out of a certain small area. For example, in a city, one pupil could be given this responsibility in a given block.

4. Arrangements should be made whereby the local civil officials who are responsible for the registration of all deaths and births would report all deaths and births to the attendance office at short and regular intervals.

5. Members of the police force, and drivers of moving vans, should be required to report all families moving into or from the district. Any other plans that local districts can devise which will insure more prompt and more adequate reports concerning incoming and outgoing families will make possible a school census that will be more nearly continuous.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

A. SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

1. What is the percentage of average daily attendance in your state? How does it compare with that of other states and with that of the nation at large? Are the compulsory attendance laws of your state sufficiently well enforced? Explain.

[1] For a suggestive set of transfer slips, the interested reader is referred to A. O. Heck and W. G. Reeder, *The Uniform School Accounting System*, pp. 22–23.

[2] Suggested office-record cards are given in the preceding reference.

2. How do you explain the large increase in secondary school attendance within recent years? Do you believe that the saturation point in secondary school attendance has yet been reached? Explain. Account for the decreases in elementary school enrollment during recent years.

3. Do you agree with the statement that non-attendance at school constitutes our greatest educational waste?

4. How do you account for the fact that no state enacted a compulsory-attendance law until 1852, which was more than two hundred years after the establishment of the first public schools?

5. What are the provisions of the compulsory-attendance laws of your state? Suggest any improvements which need to be made in them.

6. What do you consider to be legitimate excuses for non-attendance at school? What are some illegitimate excuses?

7. What provisions, if any, should be made for extending financial aid to indigent pupils? What provisions, if any, are made in your state?

8. What provisions, if any, does your state make for enforcing the compulsory-attendance laws in private and parochial schools? What provisions should be made?

9. What supervision of school attendance in the local school districts should the state give? Should there be a state supervisor of attendance? What attendance reports should teachers and school officials be required to make? To whom should such reports be made?

10. Which one of the following types of attendance officials would you prefer and why: (1) school nurses, (2) visiting teachers, (3) members of the police force, or (4) other type of individual?

11. Account for the tendency to increase the age span during which school attendance is made compulsory. Do you think that the upper-age limit for compulsory attendance will be raised? Explain.

12. What additional suggestions can you make for stimulating more regular attendance of pupils?

B. SCHOOL CENSUS

1. What are the provisions of the laws of your state regarding the taking of the school census? What changes, if any, would you recommend in the laws? Why?

2. Are any school funds in your state distributed on the census basis? What are some better bases on which to distribute school funds? Why are they better?

3. How may the census data be used to help enforce the compulsory-

attendance laws and in carrying out the educational program of the community?

4. Would you recommend a continuous census instead of the annual count? Why or why not? Outline a plan for a given school system to follow in taking and keeping a continuous census.

5. If an annual count of the children is necessary, how would you recommend that it be made? Would you recommend that teachers make the count? Why or why not?

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Chapter XX

CLASSIFICATION AND PROGRESS OF PUPILS

INTRODUCTION

Importance of proper classification and progress. — In their interests, abilities, and needs, pupils differ widely. Even in what is usually considered to be a well-grouped class in any subject, large differences will be found. It will be found that pupils' abilities and accomplishments in any subject deviate widely from the average of the class; in arithmetic, for example, some pupils will be found who add, subtract, multiply, divide, or perform other operations several times as quickly, many times as accurately, or both, as the average pupils of the class or the slowest pupils of the class. These differences are coming to be realized more and more by educators and the general public, and attempts are being made everywhere to meet them. In fact, no recent movement in education has been more prominent than the attempt to break up the traditional lock step in the school and to meet the interests, abilities, and needs of the individual pupil. More and more the school is adjusting itself to the pupil rather than requiring the pupil to adjust himself to it. The making by the school of needed adjustments to individual differences requires, of course, some extra time and energy of school officials and employees, but the ignoring of the differences results in dire consequences to the individual and to society. It is well to remember that these differences are the potential means by which the individual and society may progress. They are evidence of a functioning democracy. They should, therefore, be built upon by the school.

In attempting to meet the varying interests and abilities of pupils and to enable each pupil to progress at his own rate, numerous newer types of teaching procedures, pupil classification, and promotion have been used. Many of those newer plans are in extensive use today, and all of them have as their fundamental objective the meeting of the needs of the individual pupil as far as possible. Most of the earlier variations in plans were designed primarily to help the duller pupils, whereas the brighter pupils were usually neglected. During recent years, however, special provision has been made for the brighter pupils as well as the duller. It is necessary, of course, to meet the needs of all groups, but it is particularly necessary to meet the needs of the brighter pupils, because society must look to them for the greatest contribution. A large percentage of the slower pupils will make little or no contribution to society, and it is to the brighter pupils that society must turn for its distinguished statesmen, its eminent artists, its great educators, its illustrious scientists, its famous inventors, and its leaders in other activities of life.

Evolution of group instruction. — The earliest schools used individual instruction, not group instruction. Although the pupils of the early schools were generally classified into groups according to their ability, especially reading ability, each pupil recited individually and was given an individual assignment. This method of instruction had been copied from the home, where with meager equipment each child was taught individually.

Individual instruction prevailed until the end of the eighteenth century. About the latter date the giving of instruction to a group of children simultaneously came into vogue and has been since used. Although Comenius, in his work entitled *The Great Didactic* (published in Latin in 1657), had recommended the substitution of group instruction, Jean Baptiste de La Salle (1651–1719), a French nobleman, must receive especial credit for the introduction of group instruction on a large scale. La Salle accomplished his work pri-

marily through an organization known as the Brethren of the Christian Schools, which was an association of Catholic laymen organized by him in 1684 to instruct poor children in elementary schools.

Both types of instruction — group and individual — have always had their proponents, and these proponents have



FIG. 40. — Old-Time Method of Individual Instruction. (Note the bunch of switches as evidence that the old-time schoolmaster did not believe in "sparing the rod" and "spoiling the child.") (From Samuel Chester Parker, *A Textbook in the History of Modern Elementary Education*, p. 101. Copyright by Ginn and Company.)

caused the pendulum of practice to swing from one direction to the other. The pendulum first swung from the extreme of individual instruction to the opposite extreme of group instruction. During recent years it has been swinging back toward individual instruction as a means of breaking up the lock step which came with group instruction. Just where educational statesmanship should try to bring the pendulum

to rest between the two extremes is still a controversial question and perhaps always will be. The advantages claimed for each plan of instruction have been summarized by Clapp, Chase, and Merriman in the following words:[1]

A. Advantages of Individual Instruction.

1. It permits the slow child to go at his own rate and thus gets better and more thorough results.
2. It prevents the child from overestimating his progress.
3. It concentrates the attention upon the work of individuals rather than upon the average work of the class.
4. It allows the more gifted to go ahead and use his extra power upon the work of his own choice. It thus prevents him from falling into habits of idleness.
5. It permits the teacher to catch little glimpses of the child's interests and possible vocational tendencies.
6. It gives the teacher an opportunity to develop diagnostic skill in ascertaining just how a child's mind works as it finds its way through a problem.

B. Advantages of Group Instruction.

1. It makes better provision for the social aspects of education, because there is opportunity for cooperation, speech, social and political participation.
2. It assists in motivation, because it appeals to the desire for the good opinion of others, and to the interest in group-discovered problems.
3. It is economical, because it saves duplicate preparation and explanation.
4. It permits the slow learner to get something from the more rapid learner.
5. It also enables the fast learner to learn his material better through the experience of explaining it to the slower pupil.
6. It reduces the amount of preparation that the teacher must make for her daily work and simplifies the problem of management and discipline.

NEW PLANS FOR PUPIL CLASSIFICATION AND PROGRESS

As was stated in an earlier paragraph of the chapter, many plans for meeting the needs of the individual pupil are in use

[1] *Introduction to Education*, pp. 466–467. Copyright by Ginn and Company.

and new ones are being devised each year. Some of these plans involve administrative adjustments, such as breaking up the traditional class organization to permit individual work; other plans are based upon changes in teaching procedures, such as differentiated assignments. In a recent nation-wide survey of plans used in the secondary schools to meet individual differences Roy O. Billett found that all such plans now in use "may be classified under seven categories, namely, (1) homogeneous grouping, (2) special classes, (3) plans characterized by the unit assignment, (4) scientific study of problem cases, (5) variation in pupil load, (6) out-of-school projects and studies, and (7) advisory or guidance programs." [1] Although Billett's survey did not include the elementary school, it is known from other investigations that most, if not all, plans of the elementary school could be classified also under the seven categories just named.

Since, according to Billett, the first three plans, that is, *homogeneous grouping*, *special classes*, and *the unit assignment*, are used most frequently and "have been found to be core elements in a typically successful program to provide for individual differences,"[2] these three plans will be emphasized in the discussion which follows. Billett characterized these plans as "a kind of trinity, a sort of three-in-one answer of the nation's outstanding schools to the problem of providing for individual differences." [3] He says further that the plans should be regarded as complementary rather than as alternative procedures.

Before describing a few of these new plans for the classification and promotion of pupils, it will be well to direct attention to the criteria which any such plan should meet. At least the following criteria should be kept in mind:

1. The plan should meet the needs of the individual pupil. It should adapt the teaching procedures and the curriculum to the individual pupil. It should enable each pupil to progress at his own rate and to

[1] *National Survey of Secondary Education*, Vol. XIII, p. 415.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 11.
[3] *Ibid.*

be promoted when he is ready for promotion. While accomplishing these objectives it must not neglect pupil socialization, which cannot be secured except through a large amount of group instruction.

2. The plan should be financially practicable. It must meet that criterion because there is only a limited amount of money which can be spent by the public for education, and this amount must be spent to meet the needs of the largest number of pupils possible. Although educators might decide that it would be ideal to have a teacher for each pupil instead of giving twenty-five, thirty, or another large number of pupils to each teacher, under present conditions a pupil-teacher ratio of 1:1 would be unattainable because of the large expense.

3. The plan should be administratively and pedagogically feasible. It should not require an undue amount of machinery for its operation. In other words, it should not be a "teacher killer."

Homogeneous grouping. — The tendency has been toward using more refined methods of classifying pupils for instructional purposes, that is, toward greater homogeneity of grouping. Of course, complete homogeneity would be impossible to attain because of the wide differences which exist even between two pupils; the only really homogeneous group would consist of but one pupil. In the strict sense of the term, therefore, homogeneous grouping can only mean reduced heterogeneous grouping.

Contrary to common belief, homogeneous grouping and ability grouping are not synonymous; homogeneous grouping may be effected on many other bases than ability. In his nationwide study Billett found that the following sixteen criteria or bases were being used to group pupils homogeneously: [1]

1. Group intelligence-test score or mental age.
2. Intelligence quotient from a group mental test.
3. Average scholarship marks in all subjects combined.
4. Average scholarship marks in this or related subjects.
5. Educational or achievement test age or score.
6. Educational or achievement quotient.
7. Teacher's rating of pupil's academic ability or intelligence.
8. Average of several teachers' ratings of pupil's academic ability or intelligence.

[1] *Ibid*, p. 96.

9. Individual intelligence-test score or mental age.
10. Intelligence quotient from individual test.
11. Health.
12. Industry, application, or effort.
13. Social maturity.
14. Physical maturity.
15. Type of home environment.
16. Score from a prognostic test.

Unfortunately, experimentation has not yet determined what basis or combination of bases is the most satisfactory for grouping pupils. There is a general belief, though, that a combination of bases is better than one basis, and that the bases used in the combination should be determined by varying conditions such as the age of the pupil. Billett, who has done more research on homogeneous grouping than any other person, makes the following recommendations regarding the bases to be used:[1]

> In academic subjects probably the principal numerical criterion should be the higher of two or more intelligence quotients, derived from two or more forms of a group mental test, supplemented by scores from reliable and valid prognostic tests in subjects where such tests are available. In nonacademic subjects probably the principal numerical criterion should be scores from tests prognostic of the pupil's ability to do work in the given field. All numerical criteria should be interpreted in the light of other available data concerning the pupil. Grouping on the basis of relatively unchangeable traits significant of the pupil's probable learning rate is preferable to grouping on the basis of relatively changeable traits, since groups formed on the basis of relatively changeable traits at once tend to become heterogeneous.

The tendency has always been toward more homogeneous grouping of pupils; there is, however, still much difference of opinion over the desirability of such grouping. The majority opinion, especially among school officials and employees, favors such grouping.[2] Moreover, the experimental evidence

[1] *Ibid*, pp. 418–419.

[2] Walter H. Sauvain, *A Study of the Opinions of Certain Professional and Non-Professional Groups Regarding Homogeneous or Ability Grouping.*

favors it; the evidence indicates greatest relative effectiveness for dull children, next greatest for average children, and least (frequently harmful) for bright children.

One of the chief criticisms made of homogeneous grouping is that it is undemocratic. To recognize and to provide for these differences will give, it is claimed, the bright pupils "superiority complexes," will give the dull pupils "inferiority complexes," and will lead to social cleavages in a democratic society. In answer to this criticism, the proponents of homogeneous grouping affirm that the plan *is* democratic because it essays to meet the needs, interests, and abilities of the individual pupil; any other practice, they claim, would be undemocratic because of its neglect of individual needs.

Homogeneous grouping can, of course, be more readily used in schools which have enough pupils in each subject or grade to organize two or more sections for the subject or grade. Manifestly, the organization of more than one section for a grade or a subject in a small school, say of fifteen or twenty pupils only in the grade or subject, would be impossible because of the great expense of maintaining small classes. If a school has enough pupils in a grade or subject to organize two or more sections, homogeneous grouping may be readily effected. Thus, if thirty pupils were the average size of the class, sixty pupils in a grade or subject would permit the organization of two sections; in brief, the number of sections which could be feasibly organized would be determined by the total number of pupils in a grade or a subject. Most school systems have limited the number of groups to three — bright, average, and dull. A few of the larger schools, however, have organized as many as ten groups.

Although his school or school system may not be able or inclined to practice homogeneous grouping, any teacher may do his own grouping. In fact, he could regroup his pupils on a *more* homogeneous basis even though they had been sent to him on an approximately homogeneous basis. Although he may have received the thirty brightest pupils in any grade or

subject, they will have varying abilities, and for instructional purposes they might be divided into two or three groups. Teachers who have thus grouped or regrouped their pupils report excellent results for the pupils; they state that to have two or three groups instead of one group results in more work for the teacher, but that the benefits to the pupils clearly outweigh the slight amount of extra time and energy required of the teacher.

Under practical school conditions differentiation of teaching procedures for groups of varying abilities has occurred more frequently than differentiation of subject matter. Of course, both types of differentiation should be practiced if the needs of the pupils are to be met. On the curriculum side this will mean variations in kind and amount of subject matter to meet the needs of each group; better still, it will mean meeting the subject-matter needs of each pupil in the group.

Special classes. — Many schools and school systems have organized special classes into which exceptional pupils are placed. So far, most of these special classes have been organized for the duller pupils only, but a few schools and school systems have organized such classes for the brighter pupils.[1] In such classes pupils of various grades are found, and a large amount of individual teaching is given. Pupils who have failed, or are in danger of failing, are sent to these classes with the hope that individual instruction will enable them to return to their regular classes within a short time. In the case of the brighter pupils the hope is that individual attention will make it possible to promote the pupils to the next grade as soon as possible, or that the pupils will be given work better suited to their interests and abilities.

As with most of the newer plans of pupil classification and promotion in use today, so with special classes better qualified — at least differently prepared — teachers are necessary than in schools which use traditional plans. In special classes the

[1] In the larger school systems special classes are also frequently organized for other deviates, such as the blind, deaf, crippled, and speech defectives.

teacher may have pupils from each of the grades from the first to the eighth; moreover, he will be responsible for teaching all the subjects in these grades. Frequently the teacher



FIG. 41. — A Class of Retarded Pupils in the Detroit, Michigan, Public Schools. (Note the efforts to secure beauty in spite of much archaic equipment.)

of such a class has almost the replica of the one-teacher school in which one teacher must instruct pupils in all grades and all subjects; in fact, the teacher of a special class has an even more difficult task than the teacher in a one-room rural school because all his pupils are atypical and each therefore presents an unusual problem.

Unit-assignment plans. — There are several widely discussed teaching plans, procedures, or techniques which have as their chief characteristic the use of the unit assignment. These plans, procedures, or techniques are known variously as the

project method, problem method, individualized instruction, contract plan, laboratory plan, differentiated assignments, Winnetka plan, Dalton plan, and Morrison plan. The earliest of these terms was "project method" and was first applied to agricultural teaching; it was next applied to home economics and industrial arts, and, in many cases, attempts have been made to make it include all phases of the curriculum. Billett believes that the term "project method" lacks comprehensiveness, and recommends the use of the term "unit" because of its greater comprehensiveness; he says:[1]

> The strenuous efforts which have been made to define the project in such a way as to include all teaching and learning units in all subject-matter fields have been superfluous if not absurd. The term "unit" is itself the most satisfactory comprehensive term. The project is one kind of learning or teaching unit. The term "problem" seems best reserved for that kind of unit in which the central feature is the abstract act of thought as defined by John Dewey.

Since the terms "unit" and "unit assignment" are so frequently used in pedagogical literature to express a variety of meanings, it seems worth while to define them as they shall be used in the present discussion. We shall accept Billett's definitions, as follows:[2]

> The unit is regarded in this study as a concept, attitude, appreciation, knowledge, or skill to be acquired by the pupil, which if acquired, will produce a desirable modification of his thinking or other forms of his behavior. The unit assignment consists of those activities and experiences planned by the teacher to enable the pupil to master the unit.

Space will not permit a discussion of all the plans which use some form of the unit assignment. We shall have to be content with a brief discussion of three of the most widely used of these plans: the Winnetka plan, the Dalton plan, and the Morrison plan. Each of these plans may be adapted to schools and classes of any size and of any type. It should be remembered that there is no copyright on any of these plans and they may be used by anyone.

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 421. [2] *Ibid.*

1. The Winnetka Plan

The Winnetka plan takes its name from the fact that it was first used, and is now most extensively used, in the schools of Winnetka, Illinois. It is essentially a plan for individualizing instruction, a practice used as early as 1888 in the schools of Pueblo, Colorado, under the direction of Superintendent Preston Search. Individualized instruction was used also in the San Francisco State Normal College as early as 1913. Carleton W. Washburne, who as superintendent of schools instituted this plan in the schools of Winnetka, was at one time a member of the faculty of the San Francisco State Normal College and no doubt received many of his ideas from that experience.

In Winnetka, the reorganization of the curriculum as the first step in individualizing instruction has been stressed. The curriculum has been divided into two parts. The first part is known as the "common essentials" and consists of knowledges and skills which have been definitely outlined and which are needed by all pupils. The second part is known as "group activities," which are designated by various terms, such as "socialized," "self-expressive," or "creative" activities.

The pupil's work on the common essentials is completely individualized. These essentials are divided into units. Accompanying each unit are assignment sheets, work sheets, diagnostic practice tests, and final tests. Each pupil works at his own rate on each unit. When he has finished a unit, he compares his results with the appropriate answer sheet. If he finds that he has passed the unit, he proceeds to the next one; if he discovers that he has not passed it, he goes over his work to correct his deficiencies. When he has completed a group of units, he requests his teacher to give him a final test on that group. If he is successful in this test, he proceeds to the next group of units; if he fails, he does further work and then requests a re-test. The pupil must secure a perfect score, that is, 100 per cent, on every test before he can advance to the next unit.

The group activities occupy a portion of the pupil's time each day. Marks are not given for these activities. The activities are centered around music, art, literature, playground activities, shopwork, social science, and many other phases of schoolwork, all of them being calculated to stimulate creative work on the part of the pupil and to develop in him a social consciousness.

There are, of course, many other features of the Winnetka plan, but space will not permit a description of them. An excellent substitute for such further description will, however, be found in the following outline which Billett gives of the whole plan: [1]

1. The curriculum is reorganized into (1) knowledges and skills subjects and (2) group, socialized, self-expressive, or creative activities.
2. The work in the knowledges and skills subjects is completely individualized.
   (a) Specific goals or objectives have been established in each subject.
   (b) Several series of self-instructive practice exercises have been prepared for each objective.
   (c) Several equivalent forms of a diagnostic practice test have been prepared for each objective. These are keyed to indicate automatically the further practice necessary in case mastery has not been attained.
   (d) Several equivalent forms of a diagnostic mastery test have been prepared for each objective. These are essentially equivalent to the corresponding practice tests.
   (e) "Assignment booklets" have been prepared to accompany texts not written for individual instruction.
   (f) Reviews of previously mastered materials have been systematically planned.
   (g) The amount of work assigned for a year is the amount which a normal industrious pupil of intelligence quotient 95 or above can do in the specified interval of time.
   (h) The teachers' class records show the date on which each pupil demonstrated mastery of each objective.
   (i) Promotion is based upon achievement in the knowledges and skills subjects.
   (j) Report cards have been replaced with "goal cards."

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 297–298.

3. The group, socialized, self-expressive, or creative activities.
   (a) No academic standards have been established for them.
   (b) They center around social science or literature or both.
4. No definite correlation has been planned between the knowledges and skills subjects and the group, socialized, self-expressive, or creative activities.
5. Pupils are classed as self-reliant or supervised. Self-reliant pupils budget their time.
6. Homogeneous grouping on the basis of social age is practiced.

2. *The Dalton Plan*

The Dalton plan takes its name from the fact that it was originated in Dalton, Massachusetts; its author and chief exponent is Helen Parkhurst. According to Miss Parkhurst, the plan is based on three fundamental principles: (1) freedom, (2) co-operation, and (3) budgeting of time.[1]

In this type of school each unit of work is designated a "job," and for each twenty-day period a job is outlined. The outlines are made either by the pupil or by the teacher, or by both. Each job is made up of several related phases of work. Pupils sign contracts to complete the jobs, and each pupil works at his own rate; however, unlike the Winnetka plan, the Dalton plan requires the pupil to finish all jobs in all subjects of his grade before he can go on in any subject. Each pupil budgets his time to suit himself, and each has a job card or contract graph on which he records his progress each day for each subject; his progress is also recorded each day for each subject on the teacher's laboratory graph.

The program for the morning session is so organized that there are two short periods and one long one. The first is known as "organization time" and comprises about fifteen minutes; during this period the pupils of each "house" (home-room) meet with the "house teacher" and plan their work for the day. The next period is known as the "laboratory period" which usually comprises from two to three hours; during this period the pupils work out their problems, and are permitted

[1] *Education on the Dalton Plan*, pp. 19, 24.

to go freely from one subject-matter laboratory to another according to their needs and interests. Finally, there is a "conference period" which usually lasts from thirty to forty minutes; during this period the pupils of each grade assemble, and, as a group, discuss their "jobs." The afternoon session is usually devoted to such activities as music, art, physical education, and industrial and household arts.

Billett has given the following summary of the Dalton plan, and from it the reader will be able to secure other features of the plan:[1]

1. Extent of the plan within the school —
   (a) The plan influences the presentation of offerings in all subject-matter fields.
2. The "house" —
   (a) The school is organized into houses.
3. The "laboratory" —
   (a) Classrooms have been transformed into subject-matter laboratories.
   (b) "Laboratories" have been provided with certain essential equipment.
4. The "bulletin board" —
   (a) The bulletin board is the chief medium of announcements affecting the pupil's plans for the day.
   (b) The pupil reads the bulletin board and takes notes preparatory to planning each day's work.
5. The daily time schedule —
   (a) The traditional daily schedule of classes has been abandoned.
   (b) An "organization time" is scheduled daily.
   (c) The pupil freely follows his plan during most of the morning session.
   (d) A "conference time" is scheduled at the end of each morning session.
   (e) The afternoon session is given over to scheduled periods for such subjects as music, art, physical education, industrial and household arts.
6. The assignment —
   (a) The pupil's "job" is defined as his assignments in all subjects for one month.
   (b) The "job" usually consists of problems to be solved.

[1] *Op. cit.*, pp. 275–276.

(c) The "job" is presented to the pupil in the form of a mimeographed "job book."
(d) The pupil must finish all parts of his "job" before being permitted to take up the next "job."
(e) The "allotment" or "contract" is a month's assignment in one subject.
(f) The "unit" is one day's work in a subject.

7. Pupil progress —
(a) Pupil progress is measured by examinations following each job.
(b) Pupil progress is recorded by means of (1) laboratory graphs, (2) pupil's contract graphs, and (3) house graphs.

3. The Morrison Plan

The Morrison plan takes its name from its originator, H. C. Morrison. Like the Winnetka and Dalton plans, the Morrison plan stresses the unit assignment. However, unlike the Winnetka and Dalton plans, it does not feature changes in the school organization; rather, it features changes in the teaching procedure.

The first step in Morrison's procedure is to establish learning units. He defines a unit as "a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, of an organized science, of an art, or of conduct, which being learned results in an adaptation in personality." [1] The next step, which is really the essence of the Morrison plan, may be summarized in his mastery formula, as follows: "pre-test, teach, test the results, adapt procedure, teach and test again to the point of actual learning." [2]

Since this plan is built around group instruction rather than individual instruction, provisions for individual differences must be made through such means as special coaching for the duller pupils and supplementary work for the brighter pupils. Most of the Morrison plan can be adopted by any teacher, in any grade, or in any subject.

More frequent promotions. — In the early schools, promotions were made only annually. It was soon seen, however, that annual promotions frequently handicapped the pupil by

[1] *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, pp. 24–25. Copyright by The University of Chicago Press.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 81.

not permitting him to advance at his own rate. In most of the larger schools and school systems, therefore, promotions are now made two, three, four, or more times annually. A shorter promotion interval assists the pupil who fails a subject or grade, because the pupil often fails because of not taking an examination, of missing school for a few days, or of not doing the work of a small portion of the year. Under annual promotions such a pupil is required to repeat the work of the whole year, even though practically all the work has been successfully completed. Under more frequent promotions, on the other hand, the pupil is required to repeat only the quarter or some other short period in which his deficiency is found. Small schools and school systems find it difficult to vary from annual promotions because of their inability to organize classes for more than one section in a grade or subject; in such schools and school systems, therefore, annual promotions are still the rule. In a survey of the promotional plans used in 424 secondary schools, 170 of which employed semiannual plans and 254 annual plans, Will French came to the following conclusions: [1]

> Annual and semiannual promotions are simply two variations in an administrative procedure, the principal result of either form of which is the regular, uniform movement of groups of students through the high school from entrance to graduation. The annual promotional plan as administered has the advantage of simplicity. The semiannual promotional plan as administered usually involves the expenditure of more time, effort, energy, and probably in small schools more money. In addition, some concomitant disadvantages commonly, but not always necessarily, follow. To balance these disadvantages there is some evidence of greater school progress by withdrawals and some early graduation, principally by mid-year entries. The principal result of its operation, however, is practically the same regular, uniform group progress through school as under annual promotion. Any high school willing to be satisfied with this degree of adjustment of its program to the individual needs of its students may obtain it, as far as this study shows, with annual promotion approximately as well as with semiannual promotion.

[1] *Promotional Plans in the High School*, p. 90. Copyright by Teachers College, Columbia University.

Double and special promotions. — In order that the needs of the especially bright pupils may be more readily met, many schools and school systems permit such pupils to skip the work of a certain section or grade. For example, if a pupil is unusually proficient in the work of the fifth grade, he is permitted to skip the sixth grade; that is, he is promoted at the end of the fifth grade to the seventh grade. Most schools and school systems which permit double promotions require, however, that there be evidence that the pupil is competent in the subject matter of the grade or subject skipped.

Other schools and school systems do not wait until the close of the semester, the school year, or other promotion period to promote the especially competent pupils. They promote them as soon as teachers and school officials are agreed that they are qualified to do the work of the next grade. For example, if after a few days of school a pupil shows that the work of the present grade is too easy for him, he is promoted immediately to the next grade. In such instances, though, as in double promotions, most schools and school systems require evidence that specially promoted pupils will not miss any of the more vital work of the grade from which they are to be promoted.

Trial promotions. — Many schools and school systems promote on trial most of the pupils who have failed. If these pupils make good in the work of the next grade or subject, they are retained; if they do not make good, they are returned to the subject or grade from which they came, or some other arrangement is made for them. That trial promotions for pupils who have failed are efficacious is seen from the fact that by far the most of them successfully perform the work of the grade or subject to which they are promoted.

So far, trial promotions have been used chiefly with pupils who have failed. Such a plan, though, could be provided for the especially competent pupils as well as for the failures. The especially competent pupils could be promoted at any time with the proviso that if they made good they would remain

in the work of the subject or grade, but if they did not do the work successfully, they would be returned to their previous classification.

Subject promotions. — Frequently a pupil fails in one subject but passes his other subjects. Pupils are often deficient in one or more of their subjects but are average or above average in their other subjects. Although psychologists have found that pupils who rate high in one special ability usually rate high in all other abilities, they have found that there are many exceptions to this general rule. In consequence, it would seem well for teachers and school officials to keep in mind special abilities as well as general abilities when they are classifying pupils. The pupil who has passed one subject but has failed every other subject should not have to repeat the subject passed. Promotion by subjects makes possible the carrying out of the recommendation just made.

Most of the city schools now promote by subjects, especially in the upper grades of the elementary school and in the high school. Promotion by subjects is, however, possible in the smaller schools; in fact, it is possible even in the one-teacher school.

Summer school. — Many school systems, especially the larger ones, provide classes during the summer months for pupils who care to spend their vacation in school. Usually such classes run for only a portion of the summer vacation, for example, from three to six weeks. Such classes permit pupils who have failed or have been conditioned in a grade or subject to remove the failure or the condition and to enter school at the beginning of the regular term with their particular class. Moreover, such classes make it possible for the normal or the bright pupils to complete the regular school course in less than the usual amount of time.

Parallel courses of study. — A few elementary schools provide two parallel courses of study. In eight-year elementary schools, one of these courses is an eight-year course and is designed for the average pupil; the other is a six-year

course and is designed for the gifted pupil. According to this plan, all pupils do the same work but provisions are made for the bright pupils to do the work in six years instead of the usual eight. Figure 42 shows the essential features of the plan. From this figure it is seen that there are five places where pupils may transfer from one course to the other without loss of time. Transfers at other places are possible, provided pupils can make up the extra work necessary. Of course, the bright

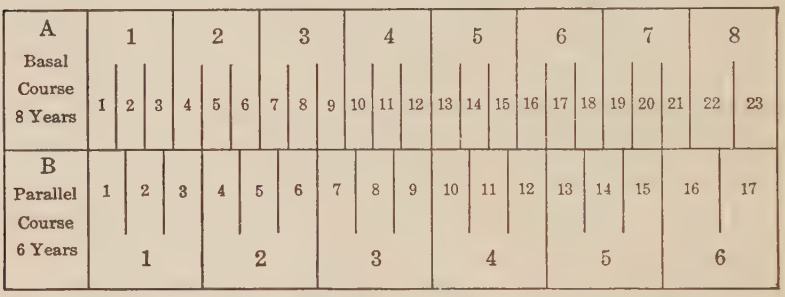


Fig. 42. — Parallel-Course Plan of Pupil Classification and Promotion. (From E. P. Cubberley, *Public School Administration*, p. 452. Copyright by Houghton Mifflin Company.)

pupil would have the opportunity to do the work in from six to eight years. He could do it in six, six and a half, seven, or seven and a half years. This plan obviously is calculated to help the normal and the bright pupils especially. It possesses no advantage for the dull pupils except such as would come from the failed pupil having to repeat only the work of one-third of a year. The figure shows that in this particular plan the grade is divided into three terms of equal length; hence a pupil who failed would fail only one-third of the school year.

Differentiated courses of study. — Although such a plan has much to commend it, only a few school systems have organized different courses of study for the varying degrees of pupil ability. Most schools and school systems have only one curriculum and it must be followed by all pupils — dull, normal, and bright. In the differentiated-course plan, the

pupils are classified according to ability, then are expected to do a certain quality and amount of work according to their ability. Such a plan is diagrammatically represented in Fig. 43. According to this plan, all pupils spend the same amount of time in the first six grades, but the amount of work which each pupil does is determined by his ability. The dull pupils pursue the minimum essentials of the course; those of average ability pursue the average course; and those of superior ability pursue the superior course. Beyond the sixth

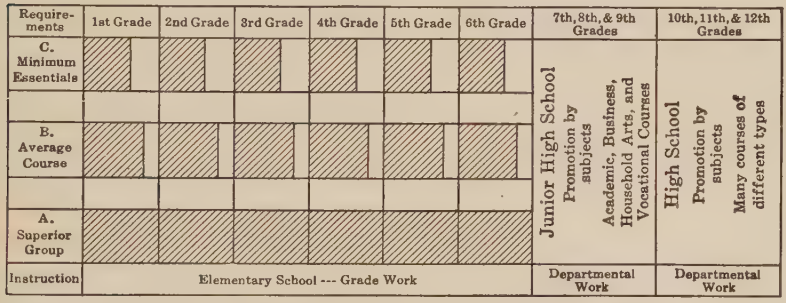


FIG. 43. — Differentiated-Course Plan of Pupil Classification and Promotion. (From E. P. Cubberley, *Public School Administration*, p. 457. Copyright by Houghton Mifflin Company.)

grade there is promotion by subjects and the brighter pupils are thus permitted to take extra subjects and to complete the work in less than normal time. Likewise, the average and the dull pupils could take as many subjects as their interests and abilities dictated.

DECREASING PUPIL FAILURE AND STIMULATING SCHOLARSHIP

Results of failure. — The amount of pupil failure should be reduced, because failure results in a loss both to the pupil and to society. Probably the greatest loss from failure comes to the pupil. Failure to him usually means that he must repeat the work of the subject or of the grade. It means that he becomes retarded, which usually results in his becoming a member of a younger class; this causes a maladjustment in the pupil's school life. Worst of all, failure often results in

the pupil being branded as incompetent by his schoolmates, his relatives, and his friends. There is danger in such instance that the pupil will develop an inferiority complex and acquire a grudge against the school and society. When a pupil is failed in school there is danger that he is being prepared for failure in life. Such losses to the pupil cannot be measured in dollars and cents.

There is also a social loss resulting from pupil failure. A part of this loss may be measured in financial terms. It is not accurate to conclude, however, that when a pupil fails a grade or a subject, the money spent on him in that subject or grade is entirely wasted. The assumption of persons who affirm that the money is entirely wasted is that the pupil who has failed will repeat the work of the subject or the grade failed, thus requiring a double expenditure of school funds for him. Regarded from another point of view, it is cheaper to fail pupils than to promote them, because when a pupil is promoted he enters a subject or a grade that is usually more expensive than the preceding subject or grade; thus, high school education is more expensive than elementary school education, and the upper grades of the elementary school are more expensive than the lower grades. Failure does cause a very real waste in preventing pupils from completing their schooling in the normal number of years, but if the compulsory school-attendance laws require all pupils to remain in school until the age of fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, or some other number of years, it has no effect on the school budget.

Amount and incidence of failure. — The amount of failure varies from subject to subject, from teacher to teacher, from grade to grade, from school to school, and from school system to school system. The first year of the elementary school and the first year of the secondary school show a much larger percentage of failure than any other year of these educational levels. Certain subjects show a much larger percentage of pupil mortality than others; certain teachers consistently fail a much larger percentage of pupils than other

teachers; and certain schools and school systems fail a much larger percentage of pupils than other schools and school systems. Approximately 10 per cent of the pupils enrolled in the schools of the United States fail annually.

Methods of reducing failure. — In reducing failure, the first step to take is to ascertain the cause or the causes of failure. In seeking such cause or causes, it should be kept in mind that the cause or causes which operate in one pupil's case may be entirely different from the cause or causes operating in another pupil's case. These causes follow no pattern. "Nature does not rhyme her children." Manifestly, there are hundreds of factors which might operate to cause pupils to fail. Among the more common and potent of these factors are the following: lack of effort or of ability on the part of the pupil; poor teaching methods; too much work at home or too many outside activities on the part of the pupil; poor health on the part of the pupil; and absence from school. Many of these causes need to be further analyzed, if failure is to be dealt with intelligently. For example, further analysis might show that irregular attendance was causing a pupil to fail, but that such attendance was the result of one or more factors, such as too great distance of the pupil from school, poor health on the part of the pupil, and his being required to remain at home to work.

In attempting to reduce or to eliminate failure, every teacher should become a student of the individual pupil. He should attempt to prevent every pupil from failing. When a pupil starts to fall behind in his work, something should be done about it then and there; the teacher is in a key position to help, through studying the pupil to ascertain the reason or reasons for his not doing his work. In brief, the teacher should make a case study of the pupil; in such study, a conference or conferences with the pupil and his parents may be found advisable. Through this procedure, many teachers have discovered that a large percentage of pupils who would otherwise have failed may be kept from failing. Such

study of failing pupils will, of course, require extra time and energy of the teacher, but its contributions to the lifelong happiness and accomplishment of the pupil should reward the teacher handsomely.

As was reported in an earlier section of this chapter, many schools and school systems are promoting pupils on trial or condition instead of failing them outright. According to this arrangement, pupils who have failed are given a few weeks, usually from two to six, to attempt to do the work of the subject or the grade to which they would normally be promoted. If the pupil does the work satisfactorily enough to justify his remaining, he is retained. If he does not do the work, he is demoted to the subject or the grade from which he came. Giving pupils another chance usually brings out the best in them, because by far the most of the pupils who are promoted on trial make good in the work of the next subject or grade. On the other hand, requiring them to repeat the work of a subject or a grade has the opposite result, because a large proportion of the pupils who are required to repeat a subject or a grade do not do better work than the first time they were enrolled in the subject or grade; in fact, a large number of repeaters do even poorer work the second time. The evidence is clear, therefore, that failing a pupil does not solve the problem of failure.

It was stated above that some teachers fail a much larger percentage of their pupils than other teachers. Some teachers seem to believe that it is their prerogative, if not their duty, to fail one-fourth, one-third, one-half, or another large proportion of their pupils. Many teachers have never reflected upon the losses resulting from pupil failure, or they believe that the only way by which they can maintain their standards is through proscribing a large percentage of their pupils.

Manifestly, there is no rule to indicate the percentage of pupils that might reasonably be expected to fail. Many teachers, however, use the normal probability curve as a check upon the percentage of failures and the quality of the

marks given to pupils. According to the theory underlying the normal probability curve, in a non-selected group of a large number of pupils it would be expected that approximately 5 per cent of the pupils will receive the grade of E, or failure; about 20 per cent, D; about 50 per cent, C; about 20 per cent, B; and about 5 per cent, A. It is not recommended that the normal probability curve be followed slavishly, but only as a check on practice. For example, if a teacher finds that year after year he has been failing 10, 15, 20, or a larger per cent of his pupils, he should raise the question of whether his marking system is too rigid. On the other hand, if he finds that year after year he has given 10, 15, 20, or a larger per cent of A's, he might appropriately raise the question of whether he has been too charitable in giving marks. Many schools and school systems request each teacher to make a percentage distribution of his grades at the close of each semester or other reporting period. In many schools and school systems the principal or superintendent reports to the various teachers of the school or school system the percentages of marks of each kind given by each teacher. Usually in such a report, the names of the teachers are not indicated, so that any embarrassment will be obviated.

Stimulating scholarship. — To reduce or to eliminate pupil failure is only one of the tasks of the teacher. A larger and more important task is to stimulate all pupils to work at their maximum capacity. Whereas 10 per cent of the pupils fail, several times that many do not accomplish all that they could. Pupils should be stimulated to do the best work of which they are capable, and should be encouraged to have respect for scholarship in every field of learning. High standards of scholarship are particularly important in high school, college, and university, but they cannot be neglected in the foundation period of the pupil's school career; this foundation period is, of course, the elementary school years.

One of the best ways by which scholarship may be developed among the pupils is for the teacher to be scholarly. The

example of the teacher is always potent. If the teacher has careless habits of scholarship — in brief, if he is unscholarly — the pupils are not likely to advance beyond his level. On the other hand, if the teacher has high standards of scholarship — if he lives and breathes scholarship — the pupils are likely to be raised to his level. Another important way of stimulating scholarship among pupils is for the teacher to recognize and reward it. When a pupil does his work especially well, the teacher should congratulate him upon his accomplishment. On the other hand, when the pupil turns in poor work, the teacher should show his displeasure, particularly if the student is competent to do better work. The following paragraphs describe other means which various teachers and school officials have successfully used in encouraging a higher standard of scholarship on the part of pupils:

1. By sending letters or notices to parents or guardians informing them of a low quality or of a high quality of work of their children.
2. By publishing the names of pupils having high marks in the school paper, magazine, handbook, year book, or public newspaper.
3. By mentioning at the graduation, or similar school exercises, the names of those pupils who have done a high quality of work.
4. By posting the names of honor pupils on the bulletin board of the school.
5. By awarding scholarship pins or other insignia, and by the granting of prizes for high scholarship.
6. By awarding scholarships in higher institutions of learning to pupils with excellent scholastic records.
7. By awarding the valedictory and the salutatory orations to the two pupils respectively who have the highest scholarship.
8. By organizing and fostering honor societies, such as the Phi Beta Sigma Society, the Pro Merito Society, the Cum Laude Society, and the National Honor Society for Secondary Schools. All of these are secondary-school societies, and their general aims are: to stimulate scholarship and a desire to render service, to promote leadership and to develop character in the students.
9. By organizing city, county, district, or state scholarship contests.
10. By giving extra credit for a high quality of work and less credit for a poor quality.

11. By permitting pupils who have excellent marks to take extra work and thus to cut down the time required for graduation.

12. By exempting from examinations those pupils who maintain a high standard of scholarship.

13. By requiring certain scholastic standards for eligibility to compete in interschool athletic contests and in other extracurricular activities.

14. And more important than all, by teachers living and breathing a spirit of scholarship in their relations with their pupils. Without the proper example from the teacher little can be accomplished with the pupils. Scholarship is contagious.

INCREASING THE HOLDING POWER OF THE SCHOOL

Amount of elimination. — The measure of the "holding power" of a school or school system is the extent to which the school or school system retains its pupils until they have finished the course of study or until the pupils are transferred to another school, have died, or have become physically incapacitated further to attend school. Thus, if a given school or school system keeps all its pupils until they have met the conditions just mentioned, whereas another school or school system keeps only 50 per cent of its pupils, the former school or school system has twice the holding power of the latter school or school system. The holding power of schools and school systems varies widely; it varies from teacher to teacher, from school to school, from school system to school system, and from state to state.

One of the most significant educational facts of recent years is the large increase in the holding power of the schools. As the years have passed, the people of the United States have more and more believed that education is the greatest single lever to opportunity and an open-sesame through which the individual may best realize his potentialities. In 1870 only two-thirds of the children between the ages of five and seventeen years of age, inclusive, were enrolled in school; at present, nine-tenths of the children of those ages are enrolled. The holding power of the secondary school has increased especially rapidly. In 1870 only 1 per cent of the pupils in the ele-

mentary and secondary schools were found in secondary schools; at present approximately 25 per cent of the enrollment is found in secondary schools. A large part of these increases has been due, no doubt, to the enactment of the more rigid compulsory school-attendance laws, to a more efficient enforcement of those laws, and to the inability of young people to secure employment; but a large part of the increases has been the result of the advent of better schools and the desire of pupils to attend those schools.

Increasing the holding power. — To keep all the pupils in school until the compulsory school-attendance laws are satisfied is, of course, a legal necessity. In most states, though, the mere satisfying of the requirements of the compulsory school-attendance laws does not provide much more than the rudiments of an education. The extent to which pupils remain in school after those legal requirements have been satisfied is the best measure of the holding power of a school or school system, because when the state law no longer requires the pupil to be in school, the pupil decides whether he shall remain. Two factors usually determine whether the pupil will remain in school. The first of these factors is the extent of interest which the pupil has in school, and the second is the economic status of himself and his family.

Over the second of these factors teachers and school officials can exert little or no immediate influence. Over the first factor, though, they can exert much influence. They can exert it by maintaining a school that will challenge the interest of the pupil and his parents. They can take steps to show the pupil and his parents the advantages of an education and the opportunities afforded by the local school or school system. Of course, the amount of time which should be spent in school beyond the limits of the compulsory school-attendance laws will depend on the individual pupil and will be determined by such factors as the economic conditions of the pupil and his family, the pupil's oppportunities for employment, and the intelligence and age of the pupil.

DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS BY AGE AND BY NUMBER OF YEARS IN SCHOOL

School *Lincoln* Grade *2B* Date *Sept. 5, 1940*

Ages	Years in School																		Total
	0	½	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6	6½	7	7½		15	15½	
4																				
4½ 5																				
5½ 6			1																	1
6½ 7			15	4																19
7½ 8				3																3
8½ 9			2		4															6
9½ 10																				
10½ 11																				
11½																				
20																				
20½ 21																				
Total			18	7	4															29

The above report is correct to the best of my knowledge.

(Signed) *Florence T. Foye*
Teacher

FIG. 44. — A Teacher's Sample Age-Grade-Progress Report.

STUDIES OF AGE-GRADE PROGRESS

Making and using an age-grade-progress report. — An age-grade-progress report shows the progress of pupils through the school. Figure 44 is an example of an age-grade-progress report. This particular report was made by the teacher at the beginning of the school year in September for his 2-B grade. Of the twenty-nine pupils in this grade, eighteen had made *normal progress*, that is, they had completed the work of the first grade in normal time — one year; seven pupils, on the other hand, had been in the first grade one and a half

years, and four members of the grade had been in school two years. Those pupils who have not done the work of the previous grade in a normal amount of time are said to be *retarded;* thus, eleven pupils in this particular grade were retarded; seven of them were retarded one-half year, and four were retarded one year. A pupil who does the work of a semester or a year in less than the normal amount of time is said to be *accelerated;* it so happens that in this particular grade no pupil was accelerated.

Not only does such a form as is exhibited in Fig. 44 show the number of years which the pupils have spent in school, but it also shows the ages of the various pupils. Such a report requires only a few minutes of time to make, and its value is great in giving the teacher further acquaintance with his pupils. Moreover, when such data have been collected by principals, superintendents, or other school officials and have been summarized, a bird's-eye view may be had of the progress of pupils through a given grade, a given school, or the school system.

Retardation versus acceleration. — Definitions of retarded and of accelerated pupils have been given in preceding paragraphs. Warning should here be given lest retardation be confused with overageness and acceleration be confused with underageness; the terms are not synonymous, nor are the causes the same. The cause of retardation is always pupil failure, whereas the cause of overageness may be either failure or late entrance or both. An overage pupil is not necessarily a retarded pupil; an overage pupil may not have entered school until the age of eight, nine, or later, but he may have made normal or even accelerated progress after entering. Likewise, the only cause of acceleration is double promotions or the operation of other factors which have enabled the pupil to complete the work of a given grade or grades in less than the normal amount of time. Recent investigations show that in the typical school system there is almost four times as much retardation as acceleration.

The data just given indicate that the schools are probably failing to meet the needs of the brighter pupils by enabling such pupils to do the work of the school in less than the normal amount of time. Pupils who do not do the work are failed; thus they automatically become retarded. On the other hand, pupils who would probably be able to do the work of one year in a half year, or the work of two years in one year, are not provided with such opportunity.

STUDIES OF AGE-GRADE STATUS

Making and using an age-grade table. — An age-grade table shows the number of pupils of each of the various ages in each of the various grades of a school or a school system. Table VIII is an age-grade table for a certain school system. From this table, it is observed that of the three pupils who are $4\frac{1}{2}$ years of age, one is in section B of the kindergarten, one is in section A of the kindergarten, and the third is in section B of the first grade. Of the 10 pupils who are 5 years of age, 3 are in section B of the kindergarten, 2 are in section A of the kindergarten, 4 are in section B of the first grade, and 1 is in section A of the first grade. Dropping to the column showing the 12-year-olds, it is observed that there is 1 pupil in section B of the second grade, 1 is in section A of the third grade, 2 are in section A of the fourth grade, 2 are in section B of the fifth grade, 3 are in section A of the fifth grade, 5 are in section B of the sixth grade,10 are in section A of the sixth grade, 6 are in section B of the seventh grade, and 1 is in section A of the seventh grade.

A glance at this table shows that a large number of the pupils of this school system are overage, that is, they are older than they should be for the grades in which they are found. An age-grade table, therefore, enables the teacher, principal, superintendent, or other school employee to secure an immediate view of the age-grade status of the pupils of a classroom, department, school, or school system. Such a table does not indicate the reasons for overageness; it merely points out any

TABLE VIII. — AGE–GRADE TABLE OF A SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS OF A CERTAIN CITY, DECEMBER 31, 1940. AGES COMPUTED AS OF SEPTEMBER 1, 1940.

Grade:	Kg.		1st		2nd		3rd		4th		5th		6th		7th		8th		9th		10th		11th		12th		
Sec.:	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	
Ages*																											Total
4½	1	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3
5	3	2	4	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10
5½	6	4	5	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18
6	3	3	15	6	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29
6½	..	3	17	12	3	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	38
7	1	1	9	12	8	3	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	36
7½	..	..	3	6	12	9	4	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	38
8	..	..	2	6	9	11	12	2	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	46
8½	..	..	1	5	2	5	10	7	3	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	35
9	..	..	..	3	3	4	5	12	8	3	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	42
9½	..	..	..	1	2	2	5	3	14	8	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39
10	..	..	..	1	2	1	3	5	6	13	4	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39
10½	..	..	..	..	..	2	1	3	2	5	12	7	2	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	35
11	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	4	3	3	7	10	7	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39
11½	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	3	3	5	8	6	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29
12	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	2	2	3	5	10	6	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	31
12½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	3	3	3	6	5	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	27
13	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	4	3	7	7	1	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	26
13½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	1	3	1	3	5	3	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	21
14	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	4	7	3	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	20
14½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	2	1	5	4	5	2	..	..	..	..	..	20
15	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	2	2	1	3	4	4	2	1	..	..	..	20
15½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	2	2	1	4	3	4	1	1	..	..	..	15
16	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	1	1	2	3	4	..	1	..	15
16½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	2	2	2	2	..	..	..	9
17	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	2	3	4	1	1	14
17½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	.	1	1	4	3	1	11
18	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	2	3		7
18½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	2
19	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	2	1	5
Total	14	14	57	56	43	43	42	41	42	42	36	36	28	29	21	22	22	22	18	18	15	15	14	12	9	8	720

*Four years runs from 3 years and 9 months to 4 years and 3 months.

overageness and suggests that further investigation be undertaken to ascertain whether the age-grade status of the pupils is what it should be. Within the last two or three decades, such tables have been made in thousands of schools and school systems with the result that school officials and employees are much better acquainted with the age-grade status of pupils than ever before. In only a few minutes or a few hours of time such a table can be made by a teacher for his own pupils, by a principal for his school, or by a superintendent for his school system, and the value accruing from making such a table greatly outweighs the time required.

In interpreting the age-grade status of any group of pupils, it is helpful to compare various classrooms, departments, schools, and school systems. In order that comparisons may be meaningful, they should be made on the same basis; in other words, the technic for making age-grade tables should be standardized. Some of the details which should be standardized are the following: the date on which pupils' ages are figured; the procedure for determining the ages; and the number of semesters or years during which a pupil is considered to be of normal age. In making age-grade tables, one of the most perplexing problems has been that of determining pupils' ages. Probably the best practice is to figure ages as of September 1, which is the approximate date on which the school term begins, and to define age as the age at the nearest birthday of the pupil.

Overageness versus underageness. — According to their age-grade status, the pupils of a grade, department, school, or school system may be divided into three groups: (1) those who are *normal age;* (2), those who are *underage;* and (3), those who are *overage*. The normal-age pupils are those who are neither younger nor older than the ages which have been agreed upon as normal for the grade in which the pupils are found. A glance at Table VIII shows that for section B of the kindergarten, ages 5 and $5\frac{1}{2}$ are regarded as normal ages; for section A of the kindergarten, ages $5\frac{1}{2}$ and 6 are regarded

as normal ages; for section B of the first grade, ages 6 and $6\frac{1}{2}$ are regarded as normal. The normal ages for the pupils of each of the grades are found *between* the two diagonal lines shown in Table VIII.

Underage pupils are those who are younger than normal for the grades in which they are found. In Table VIII the pupils *above* the two diagonal lines are underage. In section B of the first grade, for example, it is seen that there are ten pupils who are underage; in section B of the first grade the ages of 6 and $6\frac{1}{2}$ are normal, but one pupil is only $4\frac{1}{2}$ years of age, four are only 5 years of age, and five are only $5\frac{1}{2}$ years of age. The five pupils who are only $5\frac{1}{2}$ years of age are underage one-half year; the four who are only 5 years of age are underage one year; and the one who is only $4\frac{1}{2}$ years of age is underage one and a half years.

Overage pupils are those who are older than normal for the grades in which they are found. In Table VIII the pupils found *below* the two diagonal lines are overage. In section B of the first grade, for example, there are fifteen overage pupils. Of these fifteen pupils, nine are 7 years of age, or overage one-half year; three are $7\frac{1}{2}$ years of age, or overage one year; two are 8 years of age, or overage one and a half years; and one is $8\frac{1}{2}$ years of age, or overage two years.

A glance at Table VIII makes evident that the number of overage pupils in this school system is several times the number of underage pupils. Such a situation is common in schools and school systems; in practically all schools and school systems there is a much larger percentage of overageness than of underageness.

The causes of overageness are (1) late entrance and (2) failure. The causes of underageness are (1) early entrance and (2) extra promotions. If a pupil did not enter the first grade until the age of 7, he would be one-half year overage when he entered. On the other hand, if the pupil entered school at the age of $5\frac{1}{2}$, he would be one-half year underage when he entered.

CLASS SIZE

Evolution of class size. — As was noted in an earlier section of the chapter, individual instruction in the schools prevailed for several centuries. The grouping of pupils into classes came largely as an economy measure and as a result of the demand for the education of more children. The break from individual instruction soon went to the extreme of placing an unusually large number of pupils under each teacher. In the monitorial schools, which originated about the opening of the nineteenth century, it was not uncommon to find as many as a hundred pupils under the direction of one teacher. These large numbers of pupils were usually divided into smaller groups to be instructed by the brighter and larger and older pupils, who were known as monitors. It was soon seen, however, that these pupils possessed many handicaps as instructors, and consequently teachers were asked to assume all teaching responsibilities, but with smaller classes. From the time of the demise of the monitorial schools, therefore, the tendency has been for the pupil-teacher ratio to become smaller. Since 1929, which marked the beginning of a severe economic depression, the tendency has been for the pupil-teacher ratio to become larger; these larger pupil-teacher ratios have been introduced as economy measures.

The pupil-teacher ratio at present varies from school to school, from school system to school system, and from state to state. As a rule, it is larger in required courses than in elective ones, larger in the elementary school than in the secondary school, larger in the cities than in the rural districts, and larger in the thickly settled regions than in the sparsely settled ones. The practices of various school systems regarding the pupil-teacher ratio vary widely. Some systems set the size of class at 20 pupils, whereas others set it at 25, 30, 35, or some other number. Most of the accrediting agencies, such as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, have established a maximum size of class for all their members.

Class size versus per pupil cost. — The factors which largely determine the per pupil cost of instruction in a given subject or grade are (1) the number of pupils in the subject or grade and (2) the salary of the teacher. Of these two factors, the first is the most potent. If the teacher's salary and all other costs are kept the same, decreasing the size of a class by 50 per cent doubles the per pupil cost of instruction. On the contrary, increasing the size of the class by 50 per cent decreases the per pupil cost of instruction by the same amount. In a large city, increasing the pupil-teacher ratio by only one pupil results usually in decreasing greatly the number of teachers needed. On the contrary, decreasing the pupil-teacher ratio by only one pupil makes necessary the employing of several extra teachers.

Class size versus pupil progress. — It has just been stated that small classes are much more expensive than large ones. Cost is, however, only one consideration in determining the size of classes. The other consideration is pupil efficiency and progress. How, then, does the efficiency of small classes compare with the efficiency of large ones?

During recent years, this question has been much discussed and many investigations have been conducted to secure information on the question. Practically all the investigations have pointed to the same conclusion, namely, that small classes are only slightly more efficient than large ones. These investigations have been conducted on all the educational levels from the first grade of the elementary school through the college and the university. Moreover, they have been conducted with various subjects and teachers.

Such results are contrary to expectations, and perhaps a sad commentary on teaching procedures today. In any event, the results show merely what is and not necessarily what ought to be. Perhaps small classes are little more efficient than large, because present educational procedures are not adapted any better to small groups than to large ones. Perhaps teachers are instructing groups of pupils rather than individuals.

Perhaps if teachers employed the opportunity which small classes afford to meet the needs of the individuals, they would show a high percentage of efficiency over large ones.

Further investigation, therefore, needs to be undertaken on the efficacy of classes of different sizes. These investigations should have as their purpose the determination of the most desirable size of class under varying conditions. Perhaps such investigation would show that the size of class should be determined by various factors such as the intelligence of the pupils, the subject, the qualifications of the teacher, the number of classes for which the teacher is responsible and the amount of extracurricular and other duties which he must perform, and the amount and quality of supplies and equipment with which the teacher and the pupils have to work.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Account for the transition from individual instruction to group instruction coming at the same time that school enrollment began to increase rapidly.

2. What are the theoretical advantages of individual instruction? Of group instruction?

3. Homogeneous grouping of pupils has frequently caused friction with the home. How may this friction be avoided? Is homogeneous grouping undemocratic? Why or why not?

4. Do you favor departmental teaching and promotion by subjects? Are the advantages as great in the lower grades as in the upper grades? Explain.

5. What plans for meeting individual needs can you propose other than those mentioned in this chapter?

6. Account for the fact that the first year of the elementary school, of the secondary school, and of the college shows more pupil failure than any other year. What steps might be taken to reduce the failure in the first year of each of these levels?

7. What steps should the school take to secure the co-operation of the home in reducing failure?

8. What, if any, legitimate causes of pupil failure are there? Under ideal conditions would there be any failure? Can and should those ideal conditions be established? Discuss.

9. Account for the large variability in teachers' marks.

10. To what extent, if any, do you believe that teachers should follow the normal probability curve in issuing school marks? Explain.

11. Account for the fact that several times as many pupils are retarded as are accelerated. Account for the fact also that several times as many are overage as are underage.

12. Account for the larger percentage of elimination from school of boys than girls.

13. How do you explain the fact that small classes accomplish only slightly more than large classes?

14. Why do small classes cost much more than large ones? Is the slight advantage in pedagogical efficiency which small classes have worth the cost? Discuss.

15. Should a teacher who can instruct more than the average number of pupils be paid accordingly? Why or why not?

16. Do you predict that the pupil-teacher ratio will become larger or smaller? Why?

17. Should the size of class always be the same? Why or why not?

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Chapter XXI

ADMINISTRATION OF PUPIL GUIDANCE

EVOLUTION OF THE GUIDANCE MOVEMENT

Although pupil guidance, in the broad sense, has always been an interest of the school, as an organized activity it dates back only to 1908, when the Boston Vocation Bureau was established. The purpose of this bureau was to give assistance to men and women in selecting a vocation and in securing a position. The bureau was so successful in accomplishing its purpose that in 1910 the Boston School Committee ordered the appointment of a vocational counselor in every high school of Boston.

The good leaven of these beginnings in Boston soon spread to other communities, especially the cities. In the period between 1910 and 1915 many city boards of education provided for organized vocational guidance work in the schools. In 1913 the National Vocational Guidance Association was formed at a meeting in Grand Rapids, Michigan, and in 1915 *Occupations: The Vocational Guidance Magazine* was founded; these two ventures gave the movement a decided impetus which has continued until the present time. Since 1929 the movement has grown by leaps and bounds because of the large amount of unemployment, especially among the youth, it being known that one-third of the unemployed workers in the United States are young people between the ages of fifteen and twenty-four. Guidance programs have been almost universally developed to help these young people meet the crises caused by unemployment, and in hundreds of com-

munities campaigns have been organized to secure employment for the youth as well as for the old.

In the beginning the movement was limited to *vocational* guidance — to attempts at assisting the individual in choosing a vocation, in preparing for it, and in securing employment. Realization soon came, however, that the individual needs guidance in many other ways as well as in his vocational life. It was realized that the vocational needs of the individual are inextricably related to his school needs, his health needs, his leisure needs, his moral needs, and his numerous other needs. During recent years, therefore, other phases of guidance have come into prominence and everywhere the tendency is to emphasize "whole-child" guidance rather than only one phase of the child's needs.

As was noted above, organized guidance began outside the schools; it began as an attempt to give assistance to adults in selecting a vocation and in securing a position. It was pointed out, though, that it was not long until the movement found its way into the schools. In the schools the movement was started in the secondary schools, and it has secured by far its largest impetus there. During recent years — probably as a result of the large amount of unemployment and the crises to millions of persons created by this unemployment — there has been a renewed interest in adult guidance. This renewed interest has been evidenced in such ways as the establishment of hundreds of local, state, and federal vocational bureaus and employment agencies, and by the much emphasis upon adult education.

MEANING, KINDS, AND FUNCTIONS OF GUIDANCE

Meaning of guidance. — A survey of the literature on, and of the organized programs of, guidance evinces that there is a divergence of opinion on what constitutes the scope of guidance. A few writers on the topic have used the term as synonymous with education. Best known among the authors who have adopted this broad conception is one of the pioneers

in the guidance movement, John M. Brewer. In one of his books, Brewer says of this broad interpretation of the term:[1]

> The word guidance is frequently misconceived; it is best understood through the concept of self-guidance, its ultimate aim. "Do you not teach as guidance the idea of taking responsibility for others?" asks one critic. We do not. Guidance is neither adjusting nor suggesting, neither conditioning nor controlling, neither directing nor taking responsibility for anybody. . . . Educate the on-coming generation we must, and a true education, as we shall try to show, means guidance. By the process of guidance, we put the responsibility where it belongs, on the individual being guided, as fast as it can be done without running the risk of abandoning him to crass ignorance and to the misguidance of active influences ready at all times to do him harm.

Most authorities, however, have expressed the belief that such a broad concept as that held by Brewer is likely to direct attention away from guidance proper and to jeopardize its performance. While these authorities admit that there is much merit in Brewer's view that guidance is as broad as education, they believe that for practical reasons certain aspects of education, that is, of guidance, must be singled out for special consideration and definite treatment. If they are not thus singled out, they are likely to be neglected or entirely forgotten by school officials and employees. The aspects which these authorities say should be singled out are concerned with present and prospective *crises* in the life of the individual. The view that guidance is concerned with crises has been stated by Arthur J. Jones in the following words: [2]

> . . . Guidance, as organized, is, then, concerned with crises, with times of choice, times when the ways diverge, with times of needed adjustment . . . it is clear that the help given may be direct or indirect, the one guided may be conscious of the help given or may be entirely unconscious of it. The guidance may be given at the time of a crisis or long before it occurs. Indeed, the best guidance is usually that given long before the need for choice arises. It consists in assisting the individual in the gradual *accumulation* of facts and experiences that will

[1] *Education as Guidance*, pp. 2–3. Copyright by The Macmillan Company.
[2] *Principles of Guidance*, pp. 28–29. Copyright by McGraw-Hill Book Company.

when the time comes, enable him to decide wisely. Guidance is thus seen to be an essential and a fundamental aspect of education. It is inherent in all education but certain aspects of it are singled out for special consideration and definite organization.

Careful inspection of the two views expressed above indicates that there is no fundamental disagreement on what *guidance* is. Although there has been some conflict of views, when the smoke of battle has cleared, the combatants find that they have been fighting for the same objective, namely, a well-rounded and integrated individual prepared in every way to meet life's problems. If one examines the criteria which the various authorities say that guidance should meet, he finds large agreement also. Running throughout all the statements of criteria is a common vein, namely, that guidance and arbitrary compulsion are incompatible and that that guidance is best which helps the pupil to secure the proper information on which he will make *his own* decisions; in other words, in all the statements of criteria there is a consonance of the spirit of guidance and of democracy, with *individual growth* as the ultimate aim. Among the statements, that by John M. Brewer breathes especially the spirit of democracy, and for that reason it is quoted herewith: [1]

1. The person being guided is solving a problem, performing a task, or moving toward some objective.
2. The person being guided usually takes the initiative and asks for guidance.
3. The guide has sympathy, friendliness, and understanding.
4. The guide is guide because of superior experience, knowledge, and wisdom.
5. The method of guidance is by way of offering opportunities for new experiences and enlightenment.
6. The person guided progressively consents to receive guidance, reserves the right to refuse the guidance offered, and makes his own decisions.
7. The guidance offered makes him better able to guide himself.

Kinds of guidance. — In its broadest sense, guidance is concerned with every phase of the life of the individual. It

[1] *Education as Guidance*, p. 22. Copyright by The Macmillan Company.

must, therefore, be as broad as education, and must consider every aspect of the life of the individual. In every contact which school officials and employees have with pupils there is an opportunity for guidance; this opportunity exists in the classroom and in all extra-class activities, and it exists in all the special services of the school such as health and attendance.

Since life is a unit, the guidance of each individual should be a *unitary* process. For practical purposes, however, and especially for closer study, various aspects of life which need particular guidance are commonly recognized; to differentiate these aspects will be helpful, provided the integration of each aspect with all other aspects is not neglected. Since, in its more limited sense, guidance is concerned with crises in the life of the individual it will be helpful to indicate herewith some of the more important of those crises concerning which decisions must be made by the individual and concerning which guidance is needed:

1. *School guidance*, sometimes called *educational* guidance. This is concerned with such matters as the selection of schools, the choice of curriculum, and making the proper adjustments to the educational program.
2. *Vocational guidance.* This is concerned with giving assistance in choosing an occupation, in preparing for it, in securing a position in it, and in making progress in it. Because of the large amount of unemployment during recent years there has been a resurgence of interest in this type of guidance.
3. *Leisure-time guidance.* Because of the decrease in the number of working hours, this type of guidance is receiving more and more attention. It is concerned with giving the individual assistance in utilizing more worthily his leisure time.
4. *Health guidance.* This is concerned with assisting the individual to develop and to maintain the best health, physical and mental, of which he is capable. Teachers, nurses, physicians, and dentists have many opportunities to give health guidance.
5. *Character guidance.* This is concerned with the development of ethical character and the moral sense. When teachers and school officials undertake to "discipline" pupils, they should realize that they are giving character guidance.

6. *Home-membership guidance.* This deals with the development of those qualities which make the individual an efficient member of his family.
7. *Civic guidance.* This is concerned with enabling the individual to be an efficient factor in the government of the community, of the state, of the nation, and of the world.

Functions of guidance. — In organizing and conducting a guidance program the following functions of guidance should be kept in mind:

1. *Securing and providing information.* This information must possess a wide scope; ideally, it would include every aspect of life. It should encompass especially the chief life crises such as those just mentioned under the heading of "kinds of guidance."
2. *Co-operating with other agencies.* The large amount of unemployment, of physical defects, of malnourishment, of inadequate recreational facilities — to mention only a few of the most urgent needs of young people of today — cannot be met by the school alone. The school must therefore co-operate in much of its guidance work with other agencies. Among the more commonly found of these agencies are business and industrial organizations, labor organizations, other educational institutions, civic organizations, welfare organizations, parent-teacher associations, mothers' clubs, and churches.
3. *Placing and following-up students.* The guidance program must help to place each student in the proper position, school, or curriculum. It may do this through a placement service which works in co-operation with employers and other schools. In addition to helping the student, the information gained through such service should assist in revising the school program.
4. *Counseling of students.* Such counseling may be given in part through group instruction in try-out courses or in life-career classes. It may be given also through individual counseling by means of home visits and a study of the needs of the individual student. Finally, of course, all guidance must reach the individual student and meet his special needs; in other words, each student must be regarded as a case problem worthy of special study. Guidance is for every student, not for the "problem cases" alone.

THE ORGANIZATION FOR GUIDANCE SERVICE

General policies of organization. — Since the facilities and the problems of schools vary widely, it is impossible to suggest a guidance organization that will meet the needs of

every school; there cannot be an ideal guidance organization for every school. All that shall be attempted here, therefore, is to suggest certain principles to be kept in mind in forming an organization for a given school.

In planning a guidance organization it should be kept in mind that guidance is an integral part of every activity of the school and that every educational employee has a part to play in the guidance program. The program should be planned for every pupil, not merely for the "problem pupils" such as truants, failures, and the physically handicapped. In order that there may be the proper co-ordination of effort, and that none of the guidance functions will be neglected, it is necessary that there be a definite organization of the guidance program. In planning the organization it is worth repeating that guidance should be regarded as a *unitary* process in which every part of the pupil's life shall be guided and integrated. Special attention should be given to guidance when the pupil enrolls in the school and when he leaves it.

A perusal of Fig. 45 will help the reader to secure a better view of some of the major guidance activities and of the educational employees to which each activity may be appropriately assigned. Many schools, even among the smaller ones, are performing these guidance functions without the assistance of a counselor (shown in Fig. 45 as "class adviser").

Organization for a small school. — Because of the lack of resources, and the relative simplicity of the guidance problem, the guidance organization for the small school will necessarily be relatively simple. Except in unusual cases, the small school will have to get along without the aid of a guidance specialist such as a counselor. In such a school it is suggested that the principal be the director of the guidance activities and that he appoint from among the faculty a guidance committee to have general direction and supervision of the guidance program. The members of this committee should work with the teachers of the school in "selling the guidance idea" and in co-ordinating all the guidance activities.

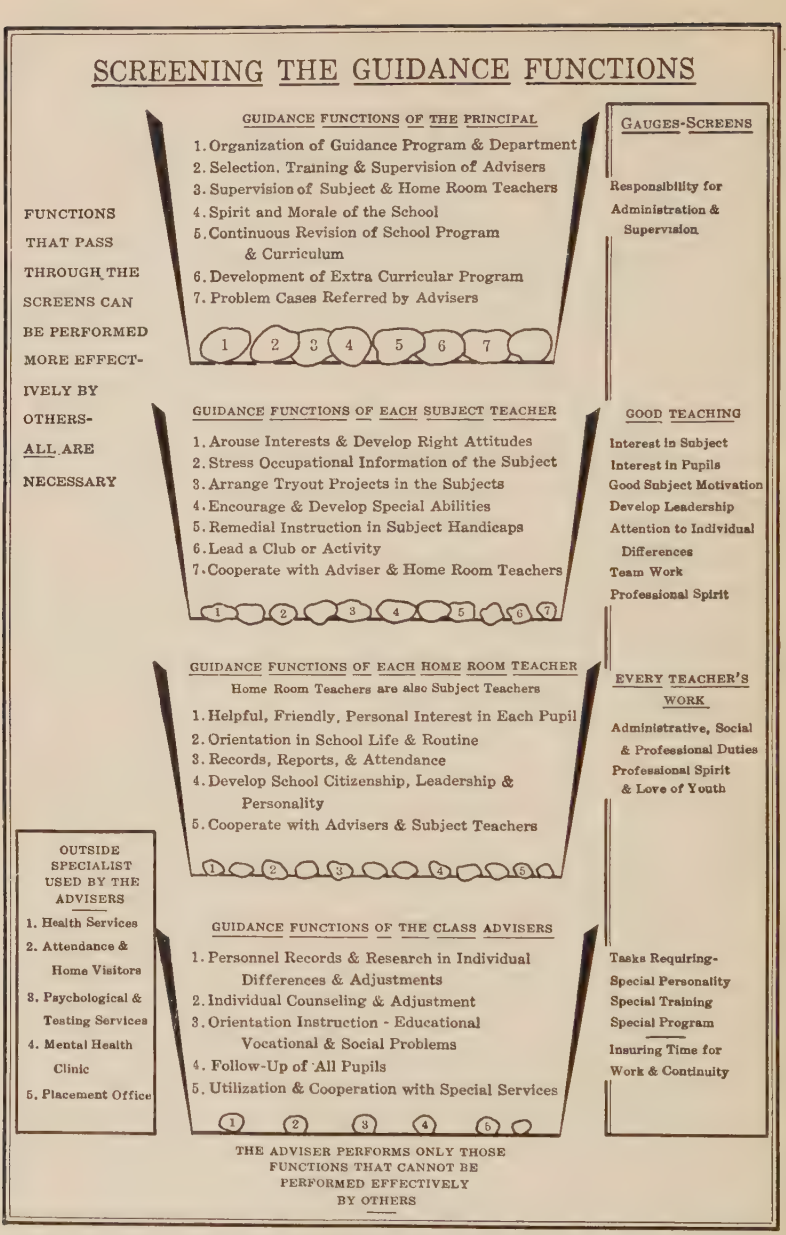


FIG. 45. — Recommended Guidance Activities of Various School Employees. (From R. D. Allen, *Review of Educational Research*, June, 1933, Vol. III, p. 216.)

It is further suggested that advisers be appointed for the various grades. One adviser is suggested for grades one to six; and other advisers, for each of the grades of the secondary school. The organization should make provision for using community agencies in the guidance program. In brief, through such an organization all of the guidance functions mentioned on preceding pages should be performed.

Organization for a large school. — Because of the larger number of employees, a larger educational offering, and better facilities generally, the guidance organization for a large school will necessarily be more extensive than that for a small school. Although the guidance functions to be performed by the large schools will be essentially the same as those to be performed by the small school, the large school will usually have many more employees to help with the program; moreover, the larger schools will often be able to employ special functionaries, such as counselors, deans of girls, deans of boys, and personnel directors, which the small schools cannot employ.

The tendency among the larger schools is to supplement the regular employees of the school with a guidance specialist, usually known as a counselor; in fact, many of the larger schools employ several counselors. The counselor becomes a member of the faculty of the school and performs special functions which cannot reasonably be expected from the other members of the faculty. Regarding the general functions of the counselor and his relation to the remainder of the faculty R. D. Allen says: [1]

> The class counselor, however, is not in any sense a narrow specialist; he is rather a generalist who takes the place of the principal in a large school for the purpose of getting a picture of the whole child from the reports of the various subject specialists. The principal of a large school can no longer perform this service. Without some generalist to take his place, pupils will be abandoned to the one-sided guidance of subject specialists. Thus the counselor is more like the general practitioner in

[1] *Review of Educational Research* (June, 1933), Vol. III, p. 217.

the field of medicine, while the special staff services are similar to the more highly specialized medical service.

Regarding the more specific duties of the counselor, Allen says: [1]

1. Personnel records and research in the study of individual differences and adjustments. This includes the use of tests of intelligence, achievement, aptitudes, and interest blanks. It also includes studies of pupil adjustments, failures, follow-up studies, and the curriculum; in fact, it includes all of the factors conditioning the success of pupils at school or at work.
2. Individual counseling and adjustments. Counseling and adjustment should include the referring of special cases to various staff services such as the placement office, health clinics, guidance clinics, and home visitors.
3. Group guidance or instruction designed to prepare pupils to meet more wisely the problems with which they are sure to be confronted. These include the study of educational and vocational opportunities, the study of their own abilities and interests, and the study of problems of personal and social relations. Such group guidance is an integral part of the general education of every child and should consequently be charged to instruction rather than to overhead.

Qualifications for guidance work. — As is true in every other endeavor, the efficiency of a guidance program cannot rise higher than the merit of the persons who organize and conduct the program. Since all educational employees, from the superintendent to the classroom teacher, have responsibilities for the guidance program, all of them must have a clear concept of the functions of guidance, of its importance, and of the methods of conducting it. Realizing the need for special training in guidance, many institutions for the preparation of teachers have introduced guidance courses or give the training as a part of other courses.

Since the counselor is the most frequently found of the guidance functionaries, special mention should be made of the qualifications needed by him. His qualifications are usually stated in academic terms, that is, in courses, semester

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 215.

hours, etc.; but it would seem better to state the qualifications in terms of *what the counselor can and should do.* The Committee on Guidance of the Department of Secondary School Principals has recommended the following qualifications for counselors: [1]

> . . . The duties of each counselor demand a high standard in personality, in vision, and in training. The mistake is often made of assuming that men and women with many years of successful teaching experience will necessarily make the most successful counselors. Although teaching experience is an asset to a counselor, it is obvious that successful teaching experience alone will not suffice. . . . In any case, the counselor should have a broad comprehensive knowledge of occupational possibilities and requirements through first-hand contacts. The diagnoses and recommendations must be based upon accurate knowledge, both of the individual whose case is under consideration and of the conditions affecting the individual's decision.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What wrong decisions have you made, or talents have you wasted, which proper guidance would have enabled you to avoid? Cite a few other examples from your acquaintances of wrong decisions and wasted talents.

2. Compare the need for guidance today with the need several decades ago. Do you predict that this need will increase or decrease? Why?

3. To what extent does the view of "education as guidance" magnify the importance of the teacher and of other school employees?

4. Do you believe that the best guidance which can be given is to place the individual in contact with all pertinent information on his problem or problems, then to insist that he make his own decisions? Explain.

5. When, if ever, should compulsory guidance be used? Explain. Would the use of compulsory guidance be contrary to the spirit of democracy? Why or why not?

6. Discuss the relative importance of guidance on each of the following school levels: the elementary school, the junior high school, the senior high school, the college, and the university. In general, where should the guidance emphasis be placed on each of these school levels?

7. Discuss the dependence of vocational guidance upon the other kinds of guidance. What is meant by saying that guidance should be a *unitary* process? Explain. What is the danger of calling all guidance "vocational"?

[1] *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, p. 49. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Principals (January, 1928), No. 19.

8. Do you believe that the schools are now doing enough toward placing and following-up their graduates? Why? How long should vocational guidance follow the worker? How long should other types of guidance follow him? What social problems are created by the large amount of unemployment among youth?

9. In what ways, if any, does counseling differ from teaching?

10. Do you believe that the typical teacher is too much addicted to "giving advice" to make a good counselor? Explain.

11. What are the dangers of placing all counseling in the hands of special counselors?

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Chapter XXII

ADMINISTRATION OF HEALTH AND SAFETY EDUCATION

THE PLACE OF HEALTH EDUCATION

Need. — It is universally admitted that good health is the most valuable asset which any person can possess. A Croesus, with poor health, would gladly exchange all his worldly possessions for good health. And who would not! Without good health, and especially when there is no chance of securing it, a person is poor indeed — poor in opportunity for happiness and for success in life. Without good health the child is not likely to realize his potentialities in school, nor is he likely to realize them when he leaves school and takes his place in the workaday world. To what extent do the people of the United States have good health and to what extent is a health program needed in the schools? The following paragraphs present facts and generalizations on this question.

The annual loss which results from sickness and death is colossal. This loss is suffered in spite of the fact that medical authorities are agreed that most sickness is preventable and that life may be greatly prolonged. The Committee on Waste in Industry recently reported that the annual loss in the United States from preventable sickness and premature death was $1,800,000,000. During the World War (1914–1918) 50,385 United States soldiers were killed by wounds or in battle; that number was tragically large, but a much larger number of civilians are "killed" annually by tuberculosis, cancer, and other mainly preventable diseases. Every year

almost 100,000 persons are killed by tuberculosis; more than 100,000 are killed by cancer; and there are more than 100,000 deaths among infants. It should be noted that these are only the major causes of death. There are scores of other afflictions each of which takes its toll in the thousands. Total war should be declared and waged against all these afflictions.

Where physical examinations have been given, either to adults or to school children, a startling number of defects have been discovered. For example, approximately 30 per cent of our men examined for military service during the World War were found to have physical defects which prevented them from doing a soldier's full duty; and the men examined, it should be noted, were the "flower" of American manhood, they being between the ages of twenty and thirty. Tentative data from the present draft show that physical defects are almost as numerous as during the World War; defects of the teeth, eyes, ears, and feet are particularly numerous. Examinations of thousands of school children in numerous and widely different communities show that most children have one or more physical defects. Moreover, contrary to common belief, a larger percentage of rural children have physical defects than urban children; rural children have more defects primarily because of lack of medical attention. In an address before the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, ex-President Herbert Hoover stated that "one of your committees reports that out of 45,000,000 children:

35,000,000 are reasonably normal
6,000,000 are improperly nourished
1,000,000 have defective teeth
1,000,000 have weak or damaged hearts
675,000 present behavior problems
450,000 are mentally retarded
382,000 are tubercular
342,000 have impaired hearing (This figure was later increased to 3,000,000)

18,000 are totally deaf
3,000,000 are crippled
50,000 are partially blind
14,000 are totally blind
200,000 are delinquent
500,000 are dependent."[1]

Illness and physical defects among school children result annually in a tremendous loss to the children and to society. The most obvious loss occurs in the large amount of non-attendance at school; 15 per cent of the pupils are absent daily, and by far the greatest cause of this absence is illness — illness due largely to the common cold. To the millions of pupils who are absent daily, and who in consequence cannot profit from the tutelage of the school, must be added the several million more pupils who come to school with illness and with physical defects which handicap their happiness and retard their educational progress. There is a close relation between physical and mental efficiency. The mind does its work through the precious machine known as the human body, and it cannot do its best work unless that machine functions at its best.

In any ranking according to importance of the aims of education, good health would head the list. A balanced person should be the aim of the school; or as Juvenal says in his *Satires:* "*Mens sana in corpore sano*" — a sound mind in a sound body. Stated in general terms, the aim of health education in the schools is the protection and the improvement of the physical, mental, and emotional health of the child. The whole child attends school, not merely the child's mind.

Scope. — In its evolution the health program of the school has passed through three stages. The first stage was that of *health protection* — protection of the pupil and the employee from an unsanitary school environment, from communicable

[1] *White House Conference on Child Health and Protection,* p. 8. Copyright by The Century Company.

disease, and from a school program unsuited to the pupil's physical and mental health. The second stage was that of *remedial work* — work designed to correct the defects which physical and mental examinations had found. The third stage was that of *health promotion* — promotion through such means as courses in health and physical education, the provision of free lunches, and hygienic school program.

The progress which has been made in carrying out this threefold program varies from school to school and from school system to school system. Some schools and school systems have not reached the first stage; others have progressed as far as the second stage; still others have progressed through the third stage and thus have a complete health program. A complete school health program — but which, because of lack of funds, will probably not be immediately attainable in all school systems — should be based upon the following items which need attention: [1]

I. HEALTH PROTECTION

A. Sanitation of the School Plant
   1. Location (orientation, noise, dust, odors, traffic dangers, playgrounds, drainage)
   2. Buildings (construction and equipment for fire protection, water supply, toilets and lavatories, health-service room, teachers' restroom, classroom construction, lighting, heating, ventilation, seating, upkeep of the building)

B. Examinations
   1. Physical examinations (completeness, thoroughness, technique, frequency)
   2. Dental examinations
   3. Psychological examinations

C. Communicable Disease Control
   1. Routine procedure (inspections, exclusions, readmissions, educational measures, immunization)
   2. Procedure in epidemics (recognition of epidemic, treatment of contacts, measures to prevent infection)

[1] Clair Elsmere Turner, *Principles of Health Education*, pp. 274–276. Copyright by D. C. Heath and Company.

II. CORRECTION OF DEFECTS AND HEALTH CONSERVATION OF DEFECTIVES

A. Special Classes (open-air classes or program for debilitated children, sight-conservation classes, mentally retarded classes, classes for the crippled, speech-improvement classes, lip-reading classes)
B. Clinics (nutrition; dental; eye, ear, nose, and throat; cardiac; lung; posture; habit)
C. Follow-up Service (methods of securing correction, adequacy of nursing service, records)

III. HEALTH PROMOTION

A. Hygienic Arrangement and Administration of the School Program
   1. For pupils (satisfactory provision for school lunches, and proper arrangement of the school program, including attention to such items as the length of the recitation period and periods of unbroken study, recesses, the sequence of subjects, the amount of home work, the number of pupils per room, alternation of different types of work, the nature and conduct of examinations, discipline and punishment, extracurricular activities, the selection of proper textbooks and source material, and the maintenance of proper teacher-pupil attitudes)
   2. For the teacher (opportunity for relaxation, satisfactory opportunity for obtaining lunch, limitation of extracurricular requirements, provision for undisturbed work-place after school, sick leave)
B. Physical Activities
   1. Playgrounds (space, supervision, equipment, activities)
   2. Gymnasium or playroom (location, space, lighting and ventilation, temperature, floor material, showers)
   3. Physical training program (objectives, personnel, basis of prescribing activity, type of work given, correlation with health program, tests)
C. Health Instruction and Motivation
   1. Aims and objectives of health education program
   2. Attitudes and qualifications of personnel (co-operation of school administration, qualifications of teachers and supervisors)
   3. Health education procedures
   4. Results of health training

In actual practice only a few schools and school systems have health programs as extensive as the one recommended

in this outline. It is an unfortunate commentary that hundreds of schools and school systems are doing nothing in health supervision; they do not have the services of nurses, physicians, or other special health employees — in fact, they do not spend one cent on a health program. These same schools and school systems spend annually $50, $75, or $100 per pupil on the teaching of the school subjects and on the remainder of the school program — all of eminent importance, it is admitted — but they fail to spend one cent on the most important aim of education and the most important thing in life, namely, *good health.* What will it profit the child to gain all the knowledge and skills in the world, if he loses his health!

The tendency, though, is in the right direction, because in theory and in practice the importance of a school-health program is being more and more recognized by the general public and by school officials and employees. What is of greater moment is the fact that practically all states have enacted legislation designed to protect and to promote the health and the safety of school children and school employees. The first of these laws were permissive and were designed only for *protection* — protection against such hazards as an unsafe and unsanitary school plant and contagious diseases. Many of the laws are only permissive, but recent years have seen the enactment of many mandatory laws. These mandatory laws govern many health practices such as sanitation, medical inspection, the employment of nurses, courses of study in health education, and courses of study in physical education. When, however, the importance of health is considered, only a few of the states have school-health laws which meet the standard of respectability; in fact, in no phase of school legislation is there a greater disparity between what is and what ought to be.

Owing largely to pressure from the American Legion, more states have laws pertaining to physical education than to any other phase of the health program. These laws usually require the teaching of physical education in every grade for

a specified number of minutes each day or week. Although the laws usually do not define physical education, it may be defined here as that phase of education which has to do mainly with the development of children through use of the larger voluntary muscles. Physical-education programs have been facilitated almost everywhere through the providing of playgrounds, gymnasia, shower baths, and sometimes, swimming pools. Special physical-education teachers are frequently employed, especially by the larger schools, and athletic coaches are found almost universally in the secondary schools. It is regretted, however, that the purposes and methods of developing "champions" are still widely used and that the needs of the large majority of the students are neglected. In brief, too many schools emphasize programs of athletics and neglect their programs of physical education; like ancient Sparta, they cater to the pupils who are physically strong and neglect those who are weak.

HEALTH ORGANIZATION AND PERSONNEL

Control of health work. — Two practices regarding the agency that controls and administers the health and physical-education program of the schools are used in the various communities. In the first practice the *local board of health* exercises the functions; in the second one the *board of education* exercises them. Of course, there are various combinations of the two practices. The first practice is found in most of the cities of more than 250,000 population, and the second prevails in the school systems of the smaller communities.

The question of whether the first or the second practice is better has been much debated; and the question has not been finally answered. For making the board of health the controlling agency, it is argued that, since the health work of the schools is a part of the health program of the community and of the state, *all* of the health program should be directed by one agency — the board of health. It is pointed out also that control by the board of health can be made a success since

many school systems are securing excellent health and physical-education service through this type of control; moreover, they secure the service without expense to the schools.

During recent years, however, the tendency has been to place the school-health work under the direction of the school officials, this practice now being several times as frequent as that of making the board of health the controlling agency. The chief arguments for giving to the school officials the function of administering the health work of the schools are as follows:

1. In order that friction may be eliminated and duplication of effort avoided, the school officials should have control of all educational matters. School-health supervision is primarily educational in nature and should therefore be carried on by the school officials who best know its needs and who are in a better position to meet these needs. When boards of health are in charge of the school-health program, they tend to limit their activities to the control of contagious and infectious diseases and to neglect the educational features of health supervision; these latter are the chief features of an efficient health program, whereas the control of contagious and infectious diseases is one of the less important — though admittedly necessary — features.

2. Between the school and the home there is a natural liaison which makes it easy for the school officials to direct the health supervision of the pupils.

3. A large portion — usually the major portion — of the responsibility for the carrying out of the health program devolves upon the principal and the classroom teachers, and they can do this work more naturally in co-operation with the school authorities than in co-operation with the board of health. At present, most of the teacher-preparing institutions are offering courses for teachers in health education, and teachers are thus being made more competent to assist in carrying out the health program of the schools.

Personnel needed. — The type, and the size, of the personnel for the health work of a school system should be determined by the size of the system and the kind of health program which is instituted. The larger school systems will need, and can afford, a larger personnel, and in employing it they can practicably secure specialists in various phases of health work.

The smaller systems, on the other hand, will often have to be content with the employment of one person, and in many instances that person will have to be employed on a part-time basis. In a school system having approximately 5000 pupils a health personnel such as the following could be readily justified:

1 director of health education	Salary,	$4000
3 school nurses	"	4500
1 mental hygienist	"	2500
1 part-time dentist	"	1000
1 oral hygienist	"	1500
		$13,500
Cost per pupil on basis of 5000 pupils		$2.70

Such a staff should secure results clearly beyond its cost. Although the staff is larger than is found in most school systems of that size, it does not include teachers of physical education or of nutrition, which many of the better school systems now employ.

The larger school systems can afford, and will need, a much larger organization than that suggested above for a community of approximately 25,000 population. The larger systems will need more nurses, physicians, dentists, mental hygienists, oral hygienists, nutrition specialists, eye, ear, nose, and throat specialists, teachers of physical education, and supervisors of playgrounds.

Medical authorities and discerning school officials are agreed that when only one health employee can be afforded that first employee should be a school nurse. In the extremely small school systems, for example, those in the rural districts, several neighboring school districts may practicably co-operate in employing a school nurse; indeed, by such co-operation it would be possible for the smaller school systems to employ other specialists as well as nurses. For the best results not more than one thousand to two thousand pupils should be given to one nurse; obviously a nurse could accomplish more with

one thousand pupils than with two thousand. The chief duties of a school nurse are the following:

1. To assist the teacher in the program of health instruction.
2. To hold conferences with, and to make addresses to, teachers and parents.
3. To help the teacher in making health inspections.
4. To assist the school physician in examinations.
5. To make examinations and to refer to a physician those cases requiring his attention.
6. To care for minor dressings.
7. To call upon parents for the purpose of securing their co-operation in securing as good health conditions for their children as finances permit.
8. To serve as attendance officer.
9. To co-operate with all agencies of the community to secure the best possible health standards for the pupils.

In the larger school systems a regard for efficient organization would dictate that the health program be directed by a *supervisor* or *director* of health; this official should probably serve as an assistant superintendent of schools in charge of health and physical education. He would have the responsibility of directing, supervising, co-ordinating, and controlling the manifold health activities of the school system; he would recommend for appointment all employees in his department; and he would serve as a co-ordinator between the work of his department and that of other departments of the school system. In addition to having general administration of all the work of the health department, in some school systems he would have time to take personal charge of one or more of the units of the health organization. He should be recommended for appointment by the superintendent of schools and should be answerable to him for his stewardship. In addition to being a well-prepared physician he should be familiar with the general principles and techniques of education. It goes without saying that he should have a good personality, be acceptable socially, and have adequate ability as a public speaker.

Offices and equipment. — Two practices regarding the location of the offices and equipment for the health department are used in the various school systems. In the first practice the offices are centralized in one place for the whole school system; in the other practice a combination physician's



FIG. 46. — A Health Room in a Small School System, Greenfield, Ohio.

and nurse's room is provided in each building, particularly in the larger buildings. The latter practice has been recently adopted by various school systems as being preferable to the central-office plan. Whichever plan for providing offices is used, provision must be made for equipping them with reception rooms and examining rooms, and with the proper psychological, medical, dental, and other necessary apparatus. Many of the large school systems will find it practicable to establish clinics of various kinds, though most school systems will be able to work with and through the private and community hospitals and clinics. In carrying out the health program of the schools, the school officials should strive to utilize all private and community personnel and materials which will assist them; they will find physicians, dentists, and

other health workers usually willing to contribute generously of their time and other resources to the aid of children, particularly the indigent ones.

Although a school may not have a health office or a health personnel, it cannot neglect to have certain items of health equipment. Even the smallest school should be provided with at least the following health equipment; a Snellen test card, or some other good eye card; a watch, preferably loud ticking; a supply of wooden tongue sticks or tongue depressors; a first-aid kit; a measuring tape; a height and weight chart; a clinical thermometer; an audiometer; and a pair of scales. Ideally, all these items would be found in each elementary school classroom, and all of them are inexpensive with the exception of the audiometer and the scales. One audiometer for several hundred pupils would suffice, and one pair of scales could readily be used by more than one classroom. An instrument for measuring the amount of light should also be available to every school.

Health records. — As a part of his school records, every pupil should have a record card upon which are entered the more important data regarding his health and physical traits. This card should be permanent and cumulative and should follow the pupil from one grade in the school to another grade, and from one school or school system to another school or school system. Most of the books listed in the Selected References at the close of this chapter contain many samples of such forms,[1] hence copies of them need not be shown here.

SCHOOL LUNCHES

During recent years the tendency everywhere has been toward the school providing lunch facilities for its pupils and employees. These provisions have been made especially by the larger schools, but many of the smaller ones have also made them; in fact, thousands of the one-room schools now

[1] For other health record forms, see Forms 2 and 5 of *The Uniform School Accounting System.* Public School Publishing Company.

make provision for at least one warm dish daily for each pupil. Since these facilities make a direct contribution to health, they will be briefly discussed herewith.

Management of school lunch facilities. — In addition to having the responsibility of providing the proper equipment for the lunch period, school officials must make provisions for the proper management of the lunch facilities. Making these provisions will include the selection and supervision of the lunchroom personnel, and the prescription of certain business practices to be followed. The aim in lunchroom management should be to provide an appropriate type of food at the lowest cost possible. Since pupils and school employees are expected to pay for the upkeep of lunchrooms, school officials should establish purchasing, accounting, auditing, and other business practices which will guarantee that these pupils and employees will always receive "their money's worth."

Many of the more progressive schools are trying to make the lunch period more than merely an "eating interlude"; they are making it a vital part of the educational experience of the pupils. They have abolished the cafeteria style of meal and have substituted for it a standard meal for every pupil. Committees of pupils help to plan the meals and the menus are changed each day. Pupils rotate in serving the meals and in being hosts and hostesses at the various tables. In brief, attempt is made to teach and to enforce high standards of etiquette and to make in every way the lunch period an enjoyable, health contributing, and socializing experience.

Lunches for indigent children. — Thousands of children are malnourished because of parental ignorance of the principles of nutrition, and thousands of others are malnourished because of poverty in their homes. All these children should be a special concern of school officials and employees, because malnourishment is sure to affect the educational accomplishment of the pupil, his emotional tone, his health, his conduct, and his happiness.

In most states public funds may be used to provide food for indigent pupils, and in thousands of communities such funds are being used for this purpose. In most communities, however, public funds for the purpose are insufficient and must be supplemented by private ones. In most communities private funds may be readily secured from parent-teacher associations, from welfare agencies, from other community organizations, and from individuals; in fact, private funds for this humanitarian purpose may be so easily secured that school officials and employees who do not secure them when and if they are needed are deserving of universal condemnation.

THE TEACHER IN THE SCHOOL HEALTH PROGRAM

The teacher's responsibility. — However numerous, energetic, and efficient the members of the health personnel of the school system may be, the health program cannot realize its potentialities without the constant help of the teacher. Most of the health instruction must be given by the teacher, and much of the inspection for contagious diseases must be performed by him, because the physician or the nurse cannot spend much time in the classroom. Moreover, the example of the teacher is potent in the development of health habits among the pupils; the teacher should embody and radiate good health. When these facts are realized, and when it is recalled that most school systems do not have physicians, nurses, or other health employees, the importance of the teacher in the health program of the schools becomes immediately apparent. In every school system the teachers are the ultimate inspectors and supervisors of the health of the pupils. All these observations apply with particular cogency to the teacher in the elementary school. The chief health measures which teachers can and should establish are well summarized in a recent bulletin of the Connecticut Department of Education to the teachers of that state; those measures are listed herewith:

1. The morning health inspection should not be neglected. This is the first line of defense. The responsibility for detecting the first signs of deviation from the normal, in previously healthy children, rests with the teacher. It is not expected that she will be a diagnostician, but simply that she can, through her greater familiarity with the pupils, and through the opportunity which her contact with them in the classroom affords, detect almost at the beginning any deviation from normal health in the pupils under her supervision.

2. The common drinking cup, towel, comb, and brush should be abolished. . . .

3. Pupils should be taught to cover the nose and mouth with a handkerchief while coughing or sneezing. This is the most effective measure for preventing the spread of colds and other spray-borne diseases. . . .

4. All classes should be inspected immediately upon the opening of school in the fall and after each vacation. The purpose of this precaution is to detect cases of communicable disease which have developed prior to the opening of school but which have not yet given rise to the characteristic signs and symptoms, and to cause the exclusion of such cases from school. It is a means of protecting the remainder of the class.

5. The principles of sanitation and hygiene should be applied to the schoolroom and its furniture.

6. The principles of personal hygiene should be observed. Teach the pupils to wash their hands before eating, and after visiting the toilet; to wash all fruit before eating; never to "swap bites" of apples or any other article of food; to bring a clean handkerchief each day and to use it; to clean the teeth at least twice daily; to use individual cups; etc.

7. The exchange of working utensils should not be permitted. The common practice among pupils of moistening the tip of a pencil with the lips and of biting on wooden pencils, penholders, and paint brushes should be discouraged at every opportunity. . . .

8. The room should be thoroughly ventilated and flooded with sunshine during all physical-education periods and after each session.

9. The water supply should be protected from all possible sources of contamination.

10. Regulations governing the exclusion and readmission of pupils should be established.

11. All pupils should be inspected daily when two or more cases of a disease are found in the same class.

In the absence of school-health officials the teacher should be authorized to send the pupil home with a note of explanation to the parent. In rural districts where the pupil may be one of many to be transported by school bus, there is an additional danger. A situation of this kind

should be left to the judgment of the teacher, and if in her opinion the case is apparently one of the communicable type, she should have the power to engage a private conveyance to take the child home at once.

The teacher should never make a diagnosis nor give suggestions for treatment. It is sufficient to state her reason for excluding the pupil in terms of what she actually found.

The teacher will be justified in excluding pupils upon finding one or more of the following conditions: nasal discharge; cough; red, watery, or sore eyes; flushed face; chills; rash or sores; vomiting; sweating not otherwise accounted for; aches and pains when accompanied by other symptoms; general appearance, such as drowsiness, dullness of eyes, etc.; pediculosis; and sore throat.

When a child is injured or is taken ill, the teacher should not hesitate to send for the nearest available physician.

The teacher's preparation for health supervision. — Most of the teacher-preparing institutions now offer elective or required courses in health and physical education. These

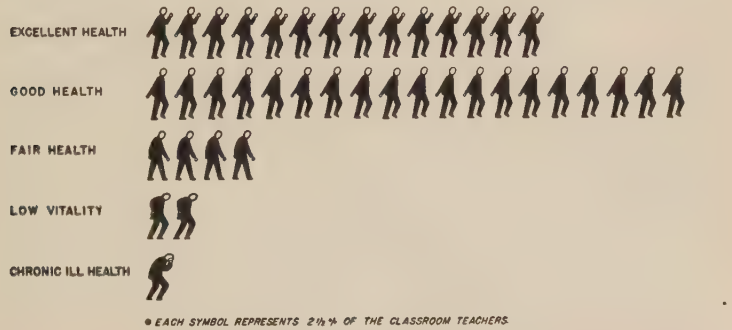


FIG. 47. — General Health Status of Classroom Teachers. (From *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, March, 1940, Vol. XVIII, p. 70.)

courses are calculated (1) to protect and improve the health of the teacher and (2) to make him more competent to supervise the health of his pupils. The tendency is to make such courses a required part of the teacher's preparation; in fact, a few states have enacted statutes which require such courses to be pursued by all prospective teachers.

The chief matters of health concerning which teachers

should have information are as follows: the importance of good health and a sound body; the general features to be observed in giving physical examinations, for example, posture, nutrition, methods of weighing and measuring, and the use of height and weight tables; the common diseases of the skin, scalp, and hair; the anatomy and physiology of the eye and the use of the Snellen chart or of some other good eye chart; the anatomy, physiology, and diseases of the ear, nose, and throat; the development, eruption, and care of the teeth; the anatomy and physiology of the lymphatic glands and of the thyroid glands; the common defects of the back, chest, and extremities; the common contagious and infectious diseases, with particular reference to their method of transmission and early symptoms; giving of first aid; and needed records.

Health standards for the teacher. — That the teacher should have a high standard of health is important for at least three reasons. In the first place, good health is necessary for the teacher's happiness, economic welfare, and pedagogical efficiency; without good health the teacher may not possess the strength, the ambition, the alertness, and the emotional tone demanded of him.

In the second place, the health of the teacher is important because it affects not only his own welfare but the welfare of all his pupils. Ill-health prevents the teacher from accomplishing all that he might with his pupils, and sometimes it becomes a positive menace to his pupils. If the teacher is nervous and irritable, there is danger of transmitting such characteristics to the pupils; or if the teacher is afflicted with a communicable disease, such as tuberculosis, there is danger of the pupils contracting the disease.

In the third place, the teacher's health is important because poor health means an immediate financial loss to the board of education if the teacher is absent and a substitute must be employed for him. Such a loss is incurred, of course, only when the board provides a certain amount of pay for dis-

ability leave — a practice which has become common, especially in the city school systems.

There was a time when teachers were employed largely on a basis of charity, and when the ill, "the lame, the halt, and the blind" stood as good a chance of securing positions as the well and able-bodied. Those were the days when it was commonly believed that "anyone could teach school," and



Fig. 48. — School for the Tuberculous, Los Angeles, California, Public Schools.

when it was affirmed that physical imperfection or illness was no handicap to the teacher. Fortunately, though, that belief has largely passed into limbo, and boards of education are more and more demanding that teachers possess high qualifications in health as well as in professional ability. The goal toward which boards of education are striving — indeed, the goal has already been reached by many boards — has been stated as a series of suggestions to those boards; these

suggestions were prepared by Thomas D. Wood, J. W. Brister, Olive Jones, and Juliet O. Bell and have been published by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company in a monograph entitled *The Teacher's Health;* the suggestions follow:

1. Provide thorough health examinations for all teachers in service. These examinations should include a thorough survey of the teacher's physical condition, consideration of her mental health, inquiry into her hygienic daily program, and instruction of the teacher regarding her health needs and how to maintain positive health, the examinations to be made by a school physician or by one approved by the school authorities. . . .

2. Require health qualifications for the employment of teachers, the acceptance of the teacher to be based on the results of a thorough examination given by the school physician or by one approved by him.

3. Employ periodic examinations for promoting the teachers' health and not as a means for disqualifying them. It is of paramount importance that school boards respect in all cases the confidential nature of these examinations.

4. Follow up examinations and stimulate the correction of defects. Provide probationary period for the correction of defects.

5. Gain the early confidence of teachers in the development of a health-supervision program for teachers, this for the purpose of dispelling fear that may be aroused through misunderstanding or inadequate preliminary publicity. . . .

6. Provide a sanitary and healthful teaching environment, including proper ventilation, temperature, and lighting, adequate janitorial service, rest rooms, and lunch rooms. . . .

7. Improve the living conditions of teachers by means of adequate salaries, by provision of teachers' homes, or by securing a selective list of available living accommodations in the community. . . .

8. Require the withdrawal of the teacher from the classroom when she is suffering from certain minor health handicaps which are not necessarily severe illnesses. This provision is particularly important in the case of colds.

9. Consider teachers' yearly attendance upon summer school and university courses during school year in relation to their health.

10. Provide leaves with some remuneration for recuperation and rest whenever the condition of the teacher warrants this. . . .

11. Make provision for insuring teachers against loss of salary during illness.

12. Analyze the absences of teachers for the purpose of determining methods of safeguarding the positive health of teachers. A required health examination by the school physician after absence due to illness is advantageous to both teachers and pupils.

13. Furnish salaries to teachers sufficient for study, recreation, and an adequate standard of living.

14. Provide some doctor's, nurse's, or hospital care for sick teachers. This promotes the mental as well as physical health of teachers by reducing causes of worry.

15. Furnish some recreational facilities and encourage outdoor recreational pursuits among teachers.

16. Make provision for courses or other means of instructing teachers relative to personal and community health.

17. Reduce cause of worry by providing adequate retirement allowance.

18. Adopt a plan for tenure of office which will properly secure teachers in their positions.

SAFETY EDUCATION

The toll taken by accidents. — The toll taken annually by accidents is colossal. In the United States, according to the National Safety Council, accidents result annually in the death of nearly 100,000 persons, and almost 10,000,000 persons suffer non-fatal injuries. If he were living in these days of speed and machines, even the charmed Achilles would find the avoidance of accidents difficult. These deaths and injuries cause untold distress and suffering; they temporarily or permanently blast the opportunities of hundreds of thousands of persons; and since life and limb have value, accidents result in a loss of millions of dollars annually. In addition to the losses resulting from death and non-fatal injury — which losses cannot be measured adequately in dollars and cents — accidents result annually in the destruction or the damage of hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of property.

These accidents result from innumerable causes or instruments, the chief ones being automobiles, falls, railroads, drownings, burns, poisonous gases, and firearms. These instruments or causes are, of course, part and parcel of the civilization of the times, and they change as the work, habits, and customs of the people change; many inventions, which

come to be widely adopted, result annually in thousands of deaths and injuries, as witness the automobile. All the causes are acts of men, not of God.

The accidents are not limited to any particular age, although the available data show that certain ages are more

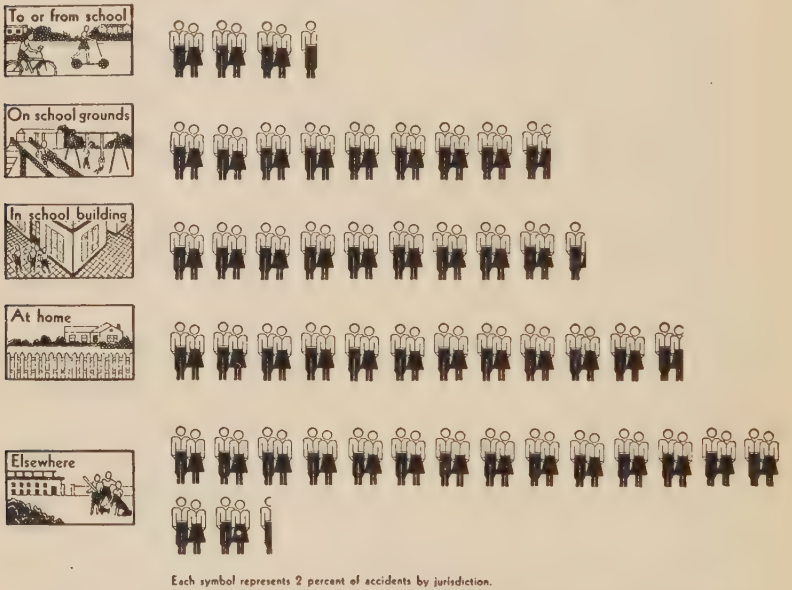


FIG. 49. — Summary of Accidents to School Pupils by Jurisdiction. (From *Safety Education*, p. 287. Copyright by the American Association of School Administrators.)

afflicted with them than others. The National Safety Council estimates that each year more than 600,000 pupils suffer accidents and that 13,500 of the accidents are fatal. Drab though it is, the picture is not entirely unlovely, because during the last few decades the number of accidents and of fatalities among pupils has been greatly reduced. These reductions have been made through programs of safety education in the schools and through better school and community co-operation in accident-prevention programs. They have been made in spite of the increasing hazards and

notwithstanding the increase in accidents among the adult population of the nation.

Reducing the number of accidents. — All, or practically all, accidents are preventable. Practically all of them are caused by people. They may be prevented through informing the people on the causes of accidents and on the ways and means of eliminating those causes. The attainment of this goal, though possible, will not be easy for educational statesmanship.

In any program for reducing the number of accidents, school officials and employees have as their first responsibility the protection of the pupils from injury, particularly while the pupils are on the school premises or are on way to or from school. Although, as Chapter XVIII has pointed out, the courts have declared with near unanimity that school districts cannot be held *legally* responsible for injuries suffered by school employees, pupils, or other persons, it is not too much to expect that school officials and employees shall hold themselves *morally responsible* for the safety of pupils. The moral responsibility is always present although the legal responsibility may not exist. There is need for legislation to hold school districts responsible for accidents resulting from failure to make proper provision against them. Political courage will be necessary to place this moral law into statutory law.

Since most school accidents occur on the playground, in the gymnasium, in the laboratories and shops, and on the streets and highways, school officials and employees should first of all take steps to prevent such accidents. After steps have been taken to eliminate school accidents, they should be taken to prevent non-school accidents. The latter steps are urged because pupils soon leave the watchful care of the school and take their places in the workaday world in which the danger of accidents lurks everywhere.

In most schools and school systems the battle for the prevention of accidents is now being fought along the four fol-

lowing fronts: (1) the making of school sites, buildings, and equipment more safe for the work and play of pupils and employees; (2) the securing of closer supervision of the pupils while they are on the school premises and when they are on their way to and from school; (3) the providing of instruction in safety; (4) the securing of co-operation between the school and other public and private agencies for the reduction of accidents, particularly traffic accidents.

The most significant phase of the program for accident prevention during recent years has been the introduction into the schools of safety education as a subject of instruction. In some schools, instruction on safety is provided in a separate course of study, and in other schools the instruction is correlated with the subject matter of other courses. Several hundred local school systems have already issued courses of study on safety education, and dozens of other systems are added to the list annually. Practically all the states have issued state courses of study on safety.

The officials and employees of schools and school systems which have provided safety instruction are unanimous in their statements that such instruction has proved its efficacy. They affirm that during and following such instruction the number of accidents is greatly reduced. St. Louis, one of the first cities to introduce safety instruction into the schools, reports that within a period of three years following the introduction of a program of safety instruction the number of accidents among pupils was reduced to almost zero.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss good health and health improvement as an aim of education. Compare it in importance with the other aims of education.

2. Compare the purposes of health and physical education today with its purposes a few years ago.

3. How do you account for the historic neglect of health and physical education in the schools?

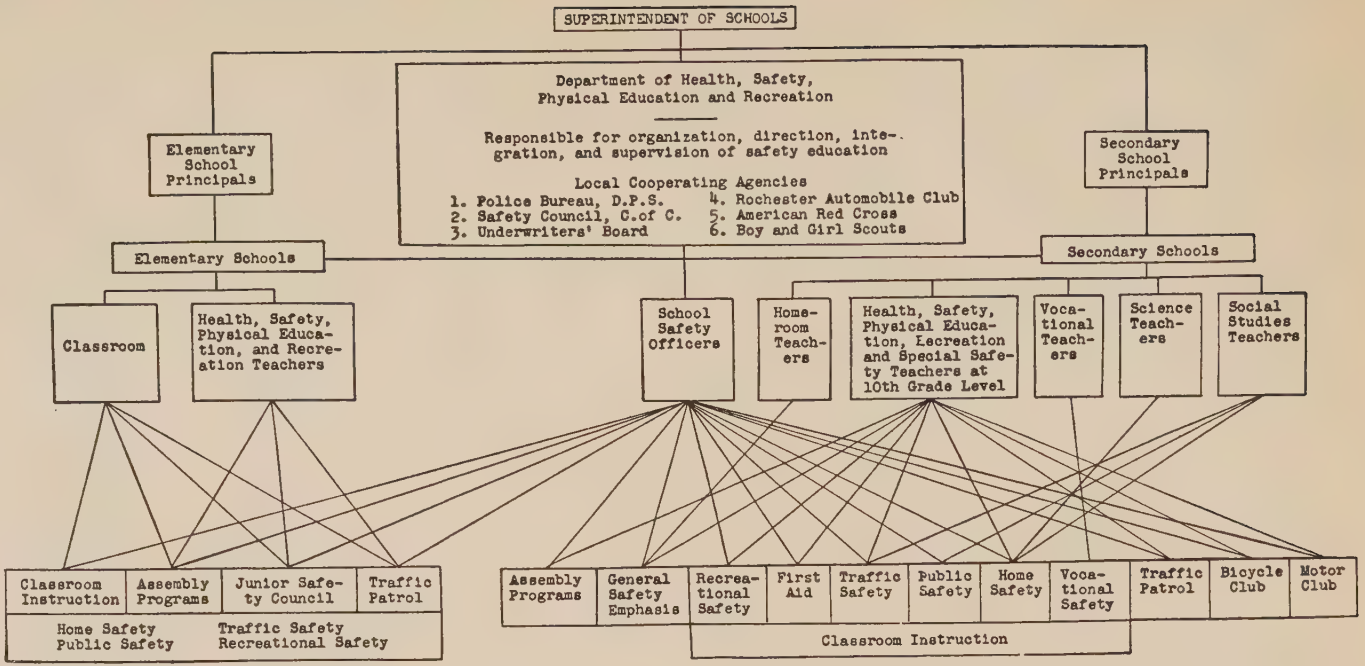


FIG. 50. — Safety-Education Program of Rochester, New York. (From *Safety Education*, p. 57. Copyright by the American Association of School Administrators.)

4. What provisions do the laws of your state make for health, safety, and sanitary control of the schools? What changes, if any, would you suggest in the laws?

5. Would you favor compulsory physical examinations and compulsory remedial treatment of school children? Why or why not? Would you favor compulsory vaccination of pupils? Discuss.

6. Do you believe that the control of school-health work should be in the hands of school officials or in the hands of the public health authorities? Discuss.

7. How do you account for the larger percentage of physical defects among rural children than among city children?

8. Do you agree with the view expressed in this book that if a school system can have only one health employee that one should be a nurse? Explain.

9. What provisions should the school make for pupil play? Should school playgrounds be kept open during the summer months? Explain.

10. What provision do you believe the school should make for a noon lunch for pupils and employees? Why? What special provision should be made for indigent children?

11. Should the school carry insurance against accidents to its pupils and employees? Explain.

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2. SAFETY EDUCATION

Fox, Florence C. "Safety Education: Helps for Schools in Constructing a Course of Study," *U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin,* 1932, No. 8. 73 pp. Contains numerous valuable suggestions gleaned from courses of study and other sources.

Kreml, F. M., Stiver, D. F., and Rice, T. B. *Public Safety.* Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1937. 200 pp. Discusses types of accidents and how to avoid them.

Checklist of Safety and Safety Education. National Education Association, 1939. 30 pp. Provides check lists for all hazardous school activities.

National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, 1 Park Avenue, New York City. Publishes much material on safety education.

National Safety Council, 108 East Ohio Street, Chicago, Illinois. Publishes much material on safety education, especially on accidents.

Problems and Topics in Safety Education. National Education Association, 1940. 32 pp. Contains a classified list of problems and topics.

"Safety Education Thru Schools," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* (November, 1938), Vol. XVI, pp. 239–298. Reports practices of various school systems.

Safety and Safety Education: An Annotated Bibliography. National Education Association, 1939. 64 pp. Contains hundreds of references.

Safety Education, pp. 1–406. Yearbook (1940) of the American Association of School Administrators. A survey of what is being done and of what might be done.

Safety Education: A Magazine of the Good Adventure. A magazine published monthly, except July and August, in two sections; published under the auspices of the Education Division of the National Safety Council, at 1 Park Avenue, New York City.

Safety Education in Schools. The Century Company, 1923. 61 pp. This is the report of the subcommittee on safety education of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection; contains helpful suggestions on the organization of a program of safety education.

Chapter XXIII

EVALUATION OF RESULTS IN EDUCATION

EVALUATION AND TEACHERS' MARKS

Purposes of evaluation. — At divers places in this book it has been affirmed that the school exists only to provide desirable educational experiences for the pupils. In order that this aim may be realized, several steps are necessary. After the agencies for education have been provided, and after the instruction has been given the pupils, the task remains of ascertaining how much the pupils have accomplished; in other words, it is necessary to *evaluate results.* Evaluation requires the accurate measurement of results and the appraisal of the results in terms of a defensible philosophy of education; science and philosophy must join hands in any program of evaluation. A school or a school system is not conducted on a sound basis if it does not make provision for a periodic and accurate evaluation of its product. Whether it is realized or not — and usually it is *not* realized — the teaching of a group of pupils, or the administration of a school or a school system, is an *experiment* just as much as an attempt to find the diameter, and the distance from the earth, of a newly discovered planet is an experiment. Whether in education, or in any other field of learning, a first principle of scientific procedure points out the necessity of evaluating results — of showing accurately the relation between cause and effect. It is an unfortunate commentary that only a few school systems have put this first principle into complete operation. Many school officials and employees are still content to evaluate by means of mere

opinion, and such evaluations are of little or no value. Worse still, many of them believe that measurement, which is the heart of evaluation, should be proscribed.

Evaluation of the achievements of pupils is necessary for several reasons. It ascertains the extent to which the objectives of the school have been accomplished. When considered in terms of the mental ability of the pupils it shows whether the pupils are working up to their capacity. It motivates pupils by making them ever conscious that a day of reckoning is always impending; it is a Damoclean warning to the careless, the slothful, and the procrastinator. It shows the strength and the weaknesses of the pupils and suggests aspects of their work in which improvement is needed and in which it can be practicably made. It affords information for classifying pupils and for promoting them. It enables the making of many worth-while studies such as the efficacy of a given method of teaching compared with another method, and the efficiency of a given teacher compared with another teacher. In brief, and in the last analysis, it shows the efficiency of the school or school system, because, as has been said before, the efficiency of a school or school system must be evaluated in terms of the effect upon the pupils.

Unreliability of teachers' marks. — The science of education is still in its infancy and has not yet *proved* many things, though it cannot be gainsaid that it has provided much helpful information on numerous matters. One fact, above all other facts, has, however, been demonstrated beyond the shadow of a doubt — namely, that teachers' marks are variable, and are therefore somewhat unreliable. This variability has been demonstrated both for the marks given the pupils on their examination papers and for the marks given them on their report cards. For example, it has been found that the various instructors in the same department employ marking standards that are widely different; one teacher will give a large percentage of "excellent" marks and no "failure" marks, whereas another teacher — who may have the same

subject and similar pupils in the same school — will give no "excellent" marks and a large percentage of "failures." Moreover, it has been found that the same teacher will place different marks on the same paper at different times.

Probably the most widely known of the numerous studies of teachers' marks are those of Daniel Starch and E. C. Elliott.[1] In a series of investigations in English, history, and geometry, these men secured for the subjects mentioned a set of examination questions, and copies of the examination papers of two pupils who answered these questions, and sent them in published form to two hundred high schools which were members of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. In sending out the material they requested that the head teacher of the subject in question mark the two examination papers according to the standards in use in his school. The investigation found that the marks which the various teachers gave the English papers showed a range of nearly 40 per cent; the marks on the history papers showed approximately the same range; and, contrary to expectation, the range on the geometry papers was greater than on the English and the history papers. Starch and Elliott conclude that "The immense variability of marks tends obviously to cast considerable discredit upon the fairness and the accuracy of our present methods of evaluating the quality of the work of the school. It may be easily reasoned that the promotion or the retardation of a pupil depends to a considerable extent upon the subjective estimate of his teacher."

Everything possible should be done to increase the reliability of pupils' marks, because the marks, whether accurate or inaccurate, are considered to be an index of the pupils' achievements. On the basis of these achievements, supposed or real, several things are done for, or to, the pupil. For example, he is promoted or he is failed; he is exempted from

[1] "Reliability of the Grading of High-school Work in English," *School Review* (September, 1912), Vol. XX, pp. 442–457; concluded in *ibid.* (April, 1913), Vol. XXI, pp. 254–259.

the final examinations or he is required to take them; he is made eligible for certain school honors or he fails to receive them; he is admitted to a higher institution of learning or he is rejected; he is congratulated by his parents or he is scolded; and he is happy or he is unhappy. Following are a few steps which many schools and school systems are appropriately taking in an attempt to increase the reliability of teachers' marks:

1. Each semester, or at some other appropriate period, the distribution of the marks of each teacher is compared with the distributions of other teachers. These distributions are mimeographed and a copy is given to each teacher so that he can compare his marking standards with those of his colleagues. In these distributions each teacher may be given a symbol, or his name may be used, as thought best; however, the use of the teachers' names is often embarrassing to certain teachers and for that reason should usually be avoided.

2. In teachers' meetings the distributions of marks for the most recent reporting period may be discussed. "The improvement of the marking system" is a topic to which at least one teachers' meeting may profitably be devoted.

3. Suggesting that each teacher tabulate, and perhaps show in graphical form, the distribution of his marks before he turns them in to the office. In large groups of pupils the normal probability curve may be used by the teacher as a check on his distribution of marks; it is not desirable, however, that this plan be followed slavishly.

4. Trying to secure a better type of examination questions and a more rational administration of examinations. For the better accomplishment of those ends the following suggestions are given: (1) base the questions upon the objectives of the course or subject matter; (2) construct questions which are clear and which will be interpreted in the same manner by all pupils; (3) set an examination that is not too difficult, yet is sufficiently difficult to challenge the best student in the class; (4) "catch questions" should be taboo; (5) indicate for each question whether a detailed, or a general, discussion is wanted; (6) during the examination, tell the pupils from time to time how much time they have spent and how much time remains.

5. Suggesting to teachers that standardized tests and scales, and new types of objective examinations, be used to supplement the old-fashioned essay-type of examination. Those more objective types of measuring instruments are discussed in the next following sections of the chapter.

Many schools and school systems have despaired of securing accu-

racy in teachers' marks and have adopted the two grades of *failure* and *passed*. Others write a personal letter describing the pupil's accomplishments and shortcomings; a sample of such a letter is reproduced in Chapter XXVIII of this book.

STANDARDIZED SUBJECT-MATTER TESTS AND SCALES

The scientific-measuring movement. — From the many investigations which have shown the unreliability of teachers' marks, standardized tests and scales grew, and largely by means of these objective measuring instruments a science of education has been brought into being. Following J. M. Rice's preliminary work on spelling in 1897 and 1898, the first scientific instrument for measuring a school product came in 1910 with the publication of E. L. Thorndike's handwriting scale. The reception given to the pioneer work of Rice and Thorndike was not very cordial. Like most new movements and proposals in whatever field, standardized tests and scales fought for recognition and life. To most school officials and employees, the idea that the work of the school could be scientifically measured was as "painful as a new shoe." What is more to be regretted is the fact that the persons who designed and proposed the early scientific measuring instruments were abused and ridiculed rather than the new *ideas* which they conceived and set forth. It is fortunate, though, that those pioneers and prophets whom school officials and employees once abused and ridiculed are now worshiped by them.

By about 1915 the scientific-measuring movement and its chief tools — that is, standardized tests and scales — had come to be accepted. The discerning historian of education of future centuries will no doubt regard this movement as one of the most prominent educational movements of the time. In 1914 — when the battle between the protagonists and the opponents of standardized tests and scales was raging and was in its decisive throes — E. L. Thorndike made the following statement, which has come to be accepted as the measurement creed of the schools: [1]

[1] *Proceedings of Indiana University Conference on Educational Measurements*, 1914.

These tests will not replace skill, they will not replace tact, they will not replace kindness, they will not replace enthusiasm, or nobility. On the other hand, they will not in any sense harm us, and they will be useful as helps, no matter how ideal our aims. Our ideals may be as lofty and subtle as you please, but if they are real ideals, they are ideals for achieving something; and if anything real is ever achieved it can be measured. Not perhaps now, and not perhaps in fifty years; but if a thing exists, it exists in some amount; and if it exists in some amount it can be measured. I am suspicious of educational achievements which are so subtle and refined and spiritual that they cannot be measured. I fear that they do not exist.

Advantages and uses of standardized tests and scales. — Compared with the old-fashioned essay-type examination, standardized tests and scales have two outstanding advantages.[1] In the first place, they provide a more objective measurement, therefore a more reliable one. In the second place, they have been constructed with great care, and with regard for the canons of experimental procedure; they have been given to several hundred, or several thousand, children, and norms have been derived from the attainments of these large numbers of pupils. From these two advantages several other "blessings" of standardized tests and scales flow; among those other advantages are the following:

1. Standardized tests and scales make possible an accurate measurement of the progress of each pupil from grade to grade; moreover, this progress can be compared with that of other pupils and with the norms for each grade or age.

2. They measure the progress made by groups of pupils as they pass from grade to grade through the school.

3. They enable impartial comparisons to be made of the work of grades in the same building and of grades with corresponding grades in other buildings of the same system; moreover, all the various grades may be compared with the norms.

4. They enable impartial comparisons of the work of different school systems to be made. The many school surveys which have been made during recent years could hardly have been made without the use of these scientific-measuring instruments.

[1] Their chief disadvantage comes from the fact that they do not take into account the peculiar objectives of a particular grade, school, or school system.

5. They enable the making of various educational investigations such as the efficacy of various teaching techniques and methods, of different plans of school organization, and of large versus small classes.

6. Granted that the pupils' abilities, the materials, and the tools with which the teacher has to work are also considered, they afford information which may be used in evaluating teaching efficiency.

7. Finally, and probably most important, they may be used in the improvement of instruction; in fact, this is the whole purpose of giving them. They aid in determining whether pupils and classes are working up to capacity. They aid in classifying pupils for instructional purposes. They assist in selecting pupils for special classes, such as for the exceptionally efficient or exceptionally inefficient. They aid in classifying pupils who are entering the school system. They help to ascertain whether the various subjects are receiving the proper relative emphasis. If they are of the diagnostic type, they show the errors and the shortcomings in each pupil's work, or in the work of a class or a school, and thus suggest those topics which need further attention.

To give standardized tests, to score them, and then do nothing with the results is to use the tests chiefly as "playthings"; such procedure is largely a waste of time, effort, and money. All that tests can do is to reveal a situation — *they cannot per se improve the situation; they merely provide the diagnosis, and the remedy must be supplied by the teacher.* To have information concerning how a certain pupil or group of pupils compares with other pupils, with other groups of pupils, or with the grade or age norm is of interest, but merely to satisfy one's curiosity does not justify the time and the expense entailed in giving the tests. Each pupil who takes a test should be rewarded with a more scientific treatment by the school than he has previously had. This reward may come to him through various ways, such as by using with him improved methods of instruction, by providing him with subject matter that is better adapted to his interests and abilities, by giving greater or less emphasis to certain topics or subjects, and by using a more scientific classification.

One of the greatest mistakes which teachers, supervisors, and administrators have made in the conduct of testing programs has been their attempt to "tackle too large a

program." This mistake has usually been due to their failure to see clearly the purpose of the program. If too many tests are given at one time, or if too many subjects are included in the testing program at one time, there is danger that the value of the tests will be largely lost because of the length of time and the amount of labor required for scoring them. It is more fruitful to cultivate a limited field, and to attack that field intensively and with a definite purpose, than to undertake an extensive and purposeless program which cannot be consummated in a reasonable amount of time. The following is an outline for a testing program, which the school administrator or supervisor would do well to follow in the main:[1]

1. Formulate a significant supervisory problem existing in your school in the solution of which data from standardized tests will prove valuable. This problem should preferably be quite limited in scope.
2. Decide upon the time when this problem may be best studied.
3. Choose the method of administration of the problem which seems to fit in best with your local situation.
4. In the light of the commonly-accepted criteria for tests select the best available tests for this purpose.
5. Secure the test material and study it carefully.
6. Train the staff to be used in the administration of the program so that uniformity of conditions may be guaranteed.
7. Administer the tests.
8. Score and tabulate the results.
9. Analyze and interpret the results.
10. Propose a program which will result in the elimination or improvement of the conditions revealed.

General merit versus diagnostic tests and scales. — On the basis of their function, standardized tests and scales may be divided into two groups — *general merit* and *diagnostic.* A general-merit test or scale should be used when the chief desire of teachers or school officials is to secure a *general* measure of the pupil's attainment in a subject, or when it

[1] H. A. Greene, *A Testing Program for the Elementary School.* (A folder issued by the Bureau of Educational Research and Service of the University of Iowa.)

is desired to see how his attainment compares with the norm. A diagnostic test or scale should be used when the desire is to *analyze* or to *diagnose* the pupil's attainments in a subject as well as to ascertain how he compares with the norm.

Most of the earlier tests and scales were of the general-merit type, but during recent years the tendency has been toward the development and the use of tests and scales of the diagnostic type. The latter type of test or scale affords information that is useful in improving instruction; it shows those phases of the pupil's work which need improvement and also those phases which are equal to, or above, the standard. In making use of the diagnostic tests or scales the progressive teacher uses the same technique which a physician uses with a patient. The first step which the physician takes is to diagnose the patient to ascertain what ails him; having ascertained the nature of the ailment he prescribes treatment; his final step is to observe vigilantly the effect of the treatment with the end in view of improving the treatment. Moreover, the physician is very careful in taking all these steps lest he be called upon to "bury a mistake."

The manner in which a diagnostic test or scale can be used to improve instruction may be illustrated from the field

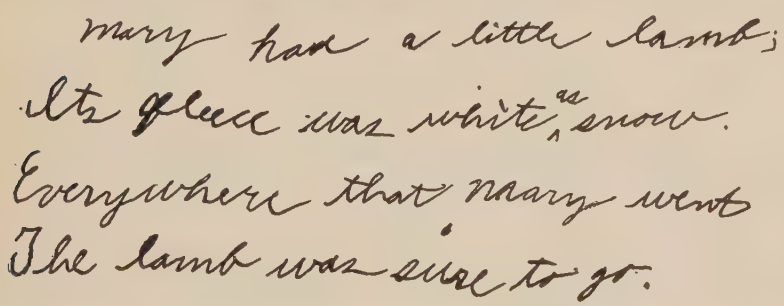


FIG. 51. — A Handwriting Specimen of a Pupil in the 3-B Grade.

of handwriting. Figure 51 is a sample of the handwriting of a pupil in the 3-B grade. If the sample is compared with a chart for diagnosing faults in handwriting, it is observed that

it has certain obvious deficiencies. For example, the letters are not well formed, nor uniformly made; the spacing between the letters and between the words is fair only; the slant of the letters is variable in a few instances; the alignment of the letters is fair only, and that of the lines is poor; the quality of the lines is poor. All in all, the specimen is only average and shows that improvement is needed. What should a good teacher do in attempting to help this particular pupil? Should she proceed on the assumption that "practice makes perfect" and have him practice more? She should probably see that he practices, but she should make sure that the practice is not aimless and perfunctory. She should remember a lesson which the educational psychologists have taught, namely, that *only purposeful and otherwise rational practice makes perfect.* She should call the pupil's attention to the deficiencies which were mentioned above and direct his practice toward the correction of them.

Selecting the best test. — When decision has been made to use a standardized scale or test in a certain subject and grade, the next question which must be answered is, "Which test is the best to give?" In the early days of the scientific-measuring movement the answering of this question was easy, because there was only one test, or at most but a few tests, for each subject. Times have changed, however. Today there is no subject in either the elementary or the high school curriculum which does not have at least one standardized test or scale, and the typical subject has several; such subjects as reading, spelling, handwriting, and arithmetic have a dozen or more tests and scales.

More than a thousand tests and scales are now in existence, and production continues apace. Attempts to improve a material or method are always laudable, but it may be wondered whether this ambition has always guided all makers of tests and scales. Some educationists and psychologists, in making these instruments, seem to be guided only by the desire to make "another test or scale"; they have apparently

gone in for "quantity production" without regard to the "need of the trade" or merit; the spirit of the artist is not with such workers.

The body of the scientific-measuring movement is fundamentally healthy and sound, but it needs some surgery and medicine. Quackery must be banished from the movement, and the persons who are most competent to banish it are those who select and use the tests. School officials and employees can improve the quality of tests and scales by selecting and using only the *best* tests and scales; if they will do this, the worthless instruments will soon sink into innocuous desuetude. But, to select the best test or scale is a difficult task, because the criteria for selection are not entirely objective. There are, however, certain general principles, which if kept in mind should aid in selecting the best. Those principles follow:

1. The test or scale should be scientifically devised, and "should measure the function or functions which it purports to measure." It would be a great boon to the testing movement if makers of tests would publish the procedures which they used in making these instruments. In the early days such procedures were always published — witness the work of such pioneers as E. L. Thorndike, L. P. Ayres, B. R. Buckingham, W. S. Gray, and Clifford Woody — but in recent years such publication has been often neglected.

2. It should have discriminative power, that is, it should be able to differentiate on the scale of accomplishment all pupils.

3. It should have directions for giving, scoring, and using, and these directions should be as "foolproof" as it is possible to make them.

4. Other factors being equal, the test which requires the least amount of time and energy for giving and scoring should be selected. The scoring should be made as mechanical as possible so that clerks may look after it if deemed advisable.

5. Norms with which comparisons can be made should be available and should be furnished with the test or scale.

6. In order that comparisons among various grades may be made the test or scale should be usable in as many grades as possible.

7. In order that the test or scale may be repeated, if desired, and as a guard against pupils becoming familiar with it, it should have more than one form.

8. Other factors being equal, the cheapest test or scale should be selected. It should not be forgotten, though, that a cheap test or scale may turn out to be the most expensive because of its worthlessness.

NEW-TYPE EXAMINATIONS

Kinds of such examinations. — During recent years a type of examination has been developed which has supplemented, and largely taken the place of, the traditional essay-type examination. This examination is usually referred to as the "new-type" examination. In its construction it resembles the standardized test, the chief difference being that it is not subjected to the regimen of experimentation through which every test that is worthy of the appellation "standardized" must go. Someone has referred to the new-type examination or test as a "standardized test in the making."

Two classes of new-type examination questions are recognized. These are the *recall* type and the *recognition* type. In answering the recall type of question the examinee furnishes his own answer, whereas in the recognition type he must select the *best* answer from two or more alternative answers which are furnished him. Following are samples of the recall types of questions and of the recognition types:

COMPLETION EXERCISES

History. The first permanent English settlement in America was founded at _____ in the year _____.

Literature. Babbitt is a character from the work of _____.

Arithmetic. If 10 carpenters can erect a building in 30 days, how long will it take 35 carpenters to erect a similar building _____?

TRUE–FALSE EXERCISES

History. 1. Our second president was John Adams.	True	False
2. The first permanent English settlement in America was founded at Santa Fe, New Mexico.	True	False
Geography. 1. Territorially the largest state in the Union is Texas.	True	False
2. The chief industry of Detroit, Michigan, is the manufacture of furniture.	True	False

MULTIPLE-CHOICE EXERCISES

History. The battle of Austerlitz was fought in Prussia, Austria, France, England, Italy.

Physiology. The best temperature for the schoolroom is about 50, 70, 75, 80, 90 degrees.

Literature. In the following list underline each book which was written either by Sinclair Lewis or by Charles Dickens: Ivanhoe, Main Street, Bleak House, The Hunchback of Notre Dame, Babbitt, Romeo and Juliet, Vanity Fair, Don Quixote, Silas Marner, The Return of the Native, Tale of Two Cities, Westward Ho, Tom Brown's School Days, Little Women, Giants in the Earth.

MATCHING EXERCISES

History. (The events and dates below do not match. Match them by placing the proper date after each event.)

1520	Revocation of the Edict of Nantes	----------
1648	Luther Burns the Papal Bull	----------
1763	Close of the Seven Years' War	----------
1660	Defeat of the Spanish Armada	----------
1688	Beginning of the French Revolution	----------
1783	Restoration of Charles II	----------
1588	Fall of Granada	----------
1789	Glorious Revolution	----------
1492	Treaty of Paris	----------
1685	Close of the Thirty Years' War	----------

ANALOGY EXERCISES

Arithmetic. Square is to circle as cube is to (sphere, round, circumference, radius).

Manual training. Chisels are to cutting as flux is to (gluing, enameling, soldering, staining, tinning, painting, varnishing).

Advantages and limitations of new-type examinations. The advantages of the new-type examinations may be summarized thus:

1. They may be marked or scored more objectively; thus, the marks or scores are more reliable.

2. They can be made more comprehensive. Unless an inordinate amount of time is devoted to it, the old-fashioned examination cannot do much more than sample the pupil's accomplishments.

3. The scoring takes less of the teacher's time and energy. In fact,

since the scoring is largely mechanical, pupil assistance, particularly in the upper grades, may be used in it if deemed desirable.

4. Pupils are usually much more interested in the new-type examinations, because they are less fatiguing. In fact, most pupils really enjoy taking them; they regard them as a sort of game.

5. They make more possible an analysis of errors and shortcomings in each pupil's work; thus they suggest to the pupils and to the teacher those items of subject matter which need larger emphasis, or a different treatment.

Although the new-type examinations have certain disadvantages compared with the standardized tests, they have one great advantage, namely, they cover the material which the pupils have been taught, whereas the standardized tests do not necessarily cover it. Of necessity the standardized test is of a general nature; moreover, it must be usually given at a stated time during the school year in order that its norms may be used. The new-type examination may be given at any time deemed desirable.

Compared with the essay-type examination, the new-type examination has certain limitations. It does not give the pupil much opportunity to define, to compare, to tell why, to explain, and to discuss. It primarily tests fact acquisition, and naturally rewards highly those pupils who have good memories or special aptitude for facts. It gives the pupil little opportunity for thinking, for organizing his information, and for expressing himself — yet a well-rounded educational program cannot neglect giving a great deal of attention to the developing of these abilities. Facts are necessary, and a good memory is a blessed thing, but the pupil must be more than a mere receptacle for information. He must emerge from school as more than a "walking encyclopedia." He must be able to *use* his information. In fairness, then, to all types of pupils, and to make sure that all types of examination-training and experiences shall be received by pupils, it is recommended that no examination be wholly of the essay-type or entirely of the new-type; in other words, both types should be employed.

Directions for making new-type examinations. — Mention has already been made of the greater ease, and the greater objectivity, of scoring the new-type examination compared with the old type. The making of the examination is, however, an entirely different story; it does not take long to formulate a small number of questions of the essay type, but to select fifty or more good exercises for the new-type examination takes much more time and perspicacity. Regarding directions and suggestions for making a new-type examination, we can do no better than quote from a book written on this subject by D. G. Paterson: [1]

1. Questions covering every phase of the course should be utilized to insure wide sampling of pupil knowledge.
2. An excess number of questions should be prepared to allow ample opportunity for the selection of the best questions for the examination proper.
3. Ambiguous questions both with respect to meaning and possible answer should be rejected.
4. The apparent difficulty of a question should not be the basis for either accepting or rejecting a proposed question.
5. Acceptable questions should include an equal number of easy, hard, and moderately difficult questions.
6. The first half dozen or so questions should be so easy that practically all can answer them, thus serving as a "shock absorber."
7. Each acceptable question should be an independent unit in the examination.
8. Each acceptable question should be short.
9. The examination should include a very large number of questions.
10. Each form or type of question should be segregated, the examination consisting of as many parts as there are types of questions.
11. Within each part of the examination the questions should be arranged according to topical sequence in the course.
12. The examination itself should be preceded by suitable general directions.
13. Specific directions should be given for each segregated group of questions.
14. There should be a random arrangement of true-false questions, with approximately an equal number of true and false statements.

[1] *Preparation and Use of New-Type Examinations*, pp. 64–66. Copyright by World Book Company.

(good) ↗

15. The correct answers among the alternative answers in the single-choice and in the plural-choice questions should be placed according to chance.

16. A uniform method of marking papers, together with the use of a colored pencil in scoring, should be used.

17. Scoring formulae should not be used except possibly for the true-false type of questions, when a right-minus-wrong scoring formula may be used.

18. "Weighting" of questions according to difficulty or importance is rendered unnecessary in new-type examinations.

19. Total scores should be computed for the examination papers, distributed on a graph or table, and then a key for converting total scores into letter grades derived.

20. The examination should be mimeographed or printed, and both used and unused copies should be kept under lock and key in order to avoid the possibility of coaching.

21. The prevention of coaching should also be accomplished by using duplicate forms for classes in the same subject taking the examination at different hours or on different days and by changing the examination questions from semester to semester.

22. A large file of questions should be developed for each course, so that a reservoir of from 1,500 to 2,000 objective questions would be available from which examinations in endless variety could be quickly assembled and used as occasion demands. . . .

In the making of all types of examinations, all questions or other exercises should be based on the objectives of the course of study. In fact, this should be the first direction or suggestion in any list such as that just quoted from Paterson. An examination which is not based on the objectives of the course is certain to be somewhat meaningless. Moreover, the type of examination which will be given must be determined by the type of objectives possessed by the course.

MENTAL TESTS

Indices of brightness and achievement. — There is another type of information needed concerning every pupil, and this the achievement tests above described do not give; that information concerns the *general ability* of the pupil — that is, his ability to achieve. During recent years mental

tests have come to be widely used by the schools for determining this general ability, or general intelligence, of pupils.

Three types of indices have been developed by educationists and psychologists, by means of which the educational possibilities and the educational accomplishments of pupils may be expressed. The first of these indices is the *intelligence quotient* (I.Q.), which may be defined as the ratio of the mental age of the pupil to his chronological age. Investigations have shown that the intelligence quotient of an individual is fairly constant. The following is the commonly accepted definition of *mental age:* By a given mental age is meant that degree of general mental ability which is possessed by the average child of corresponding chronological age. The formula for expressing the I.Q. is:

$$\frac{\text{Mental age}}{\text{Chronological age}} \text{ equals I.Q.}$$

The second index is the *subject quotient* (S.Q.), which is sometimes called the educational quotient (E.Q.). The S.Q. is found by dividing the subject age of the pupil by his chronological age; thus, by dividing the reading age, the arithmetic age, or the age for any other subject, by the chronological age, we secure the reading quotient, the arithmetic quotient, or the quotient for any given subject. The subject quotient shows the rate at which the pupil has progressed in a particular subject. The formula for expressing the S.Q. is:

$$\frac{\text{Subject age}}{\text{Chronological age}} \text{ equals S.Q.}$$

The third index is the *subject ratio* (S.R.), which is sometimes called the accomplishment quotient (A.Q.). The S.R. is found by dividing the subject age of the pupil by his mental age. The formula for expressing the S.R. is:

$$\frac{\text{Subject age}}{\text{Mental age}} \text{ equals S.R.}$$

It is apparent that the subject ratio is the index that gets at the heart of the problem, because it shows what the pupil has accomplished in a given subject compared with what he was competent to do. Thus, with a given pupil it might be found that his intelligence quotient (for example, 130) shows him to be able to do much better work, yet his subject ratio might show that he is accomplishing only 90 per cent, say, of what his mental age shows him to be able to accomplish. The aim should therefore always be to bring the subject ratio to as near 100 per cent as possible. When the subject ratio is much below 100 per cent, assuming that the subject age and the mental age have been correctly ascertained, and that the pupil is in good health, the pupil is probably loafing; in such instance it would probably be best to place the pupil in a higher grade or to give him more work to do.

Other uses of mental tests. — In preceding paragraphs one of the chief uses of mental tests was discussed. To review, it was stated that mental tests enable school officials and employees to ascertain whether the pupils are accomplishing all that their general ability indicates that they are capable of accomplishing. Other uses which school officials and employees are making of these instruments are the following:

1. *For classification of pupils.* Most authorities are agreed that for instructional purposes pupils should be grouped on a *homogeneous* basis rather than on a heterogeneous basis. Mental tests aid in placing the pupils in these homogeneous groups. Most authorities, however, recommend that grade classification should be made on the basis of both the mental age and the subject age, and that sectioning within a given grade be made on the basis of both the intelligence quotient and the subject ratio. Many mental and achievement tests are available for both the elementary school and the high school which will assist in such classification.

2. *For guidance purposes.* The use of mental tests in pupil guidance is closely related to the two uses just mentioned.

The guidance uses of mental tests, particularly their uses for vocational guidance, have not been finally determined and circumspection should be exercised by school officials and employees in recommending this vocation or that on the basis of the intelligence quotient of the pupil. It is generally agreed that the best type of guidance is that which gives the pupil helpful information regarding the opportunities in, and the requirements for, the various vocations; with this information, the pupil should be encouraged to make his own decision. L. M. Terman has the following to say of the importance of pupil guidance and of the intelligence requirements for various vocations: [1]

> At present vocational guidance is too largely an end process, an afterthought. To be of most value it should be preceded by years of educational guidance. At every step in the child's progress the school should take account of his vocational possibilities. Preliminary investigations indicate that an I.Q. below 70 rarely permits anything better than unskilled labor; that the range from 70 to 80 is pre-eminently that of semiskilled labor, from 80 to 100 that of the skilled or ordinary clerical labor, from 100 to 110 or 115 that of the semiprofessional pursuits; and that above all these are the grades of intelligence which permit one to enter the professions or the larger fields of business. Intelligence tests can tell us whether a child's native brightness corresponds more nearly to the median of (1) the professional classes, (2) those in the semiprofessional pursuits, (3) ordinary skilled workers, (4) semiskilled workers, or (5) unskilled laborers. This information will be of great value in planning the education of a particular child and also in planning the differentiated curriculum here recommended. It will be understood that such figures can only be used as a rough guide, especially since the I.Q. is not a perfectly accurate measure of intelligence.

3. *For discovering exceptional children.* By "exceptional children" as used here is meant those who are exceptionally *bright* as well as those who are exceptionally *dull*. Both the bright and the dull need to be discovered so that their needs may be more competently met by the school. In many instances, pupils are permitted to remain in the regular

[1] L. M. Terman and Others, *Intelligence Tests and School Reorganization*, pp. 27–28. Copyright by World Book Company.

classes when they are so dull that they should be placed in special classes or, in extreme cases, be placed in institutions for the feeble-minded. These particularly dull pupils may be found by applying mental tests to them. Likewise there are pupils of the genius or near-genius class who should be discovered and aided in the development of their potentialities. It is an unfortunate commentary that the needs of these brightest children — those to whom society must look for its most important contributions — have been largely neglected; several times as many schools and school systems are doing something special for the dull as are doing anything special for the bright. In investigations of the I.Q. of thousands of children L. M. Terman and others have found that:

The lowest	1%	go to	70	or below,	the highest	1%	reach	130	or above
" "	2%	" "	73	"	"	"	"	2%	"	128	"	"
" "	3%	" "	76	"	"	"	"	3%	"	125	"	"
" "	5%	" "	78	"	"	"	"	5%	"	122	"	"
" "	10%	" "	85	"	"	"	"	10%	"	116	"	"
" "	15%	" "	88	"	"	"	"	15%	"	113	"	"
" "	20%	" "	91	"	"	"	"	20%	"	110	"	"
" "	25%	" "	92	"	"	"	"	25%	"	108	"	"
" "	33%	" "	95	"	"	"	"	33%	"	106	"	"

Cautions in using mental tests. — In attempting to secure the widest benefits from the use of mental tests three cautions should be heeded. In the first place, the tests should be competently given and scored; a mental test inaccurately given, scored, or used is worse than no test. The directions which accompany the tests should be carefully followed. Provided they have had some preliminary instruction, and are given supervision, most teachers are able to give and score the tests; in fact, in most schools there will probably be one or more teachers who recently have had college courses in tests and measurements, and these will need little or no help in a testing program.

In the second place, the test score of a pupil should not be considered infallible, nor regarded as an end in itself. The score should be regarded by the teacher only as a point

of departure for further study of the pupil. For example, other traits of the pupil might be compared with his intelligence rating. Intelligence is only one of the many characteristics of a pupil which determine his accomplishments. Pupils have always differed more in the "will to do" than in their mental ability. A teacher who makes such studies cannot fail to have a better understanding of his pupils, and thus will be more competent to guide and instruct them.

In the third place, teachers and school officials should exercise care lest they make remarks about a pupil's intelligence quotient or mental age which will embarrass the pupil; in this matter a question of pupil-teacher ethics is involved. It is regrettable when a pupil is dubbed by his fellows a moron, a "dumbbell," or a member of some other inferior species. Never should the general public be told the intelligence rating of a pupil, and seldom should the pupil be told; authorities agree that college students may be told their intelligence ratings and that, upon their request, parents may be told the ratings of their children. On these matters teachers should observe the same confidence that is practiced by the physician, the clergyman, the judge of the juvenile court, and members of other long-established professions. In fact, the practice just recommended is enjoined upon school officials and employees by the Code of Ethics of the National Education Association.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Should the final-examination questions be made by each classroom teacher or should there be a uniform list for the whole school system? Explain.

2. Should pupils be required to take examinations which have been designed by the state department of education? Why or why not?

3. How account for the fact that the schools of the Western states place less emphasis on examinations than the schools of the Eastern states? Which practice do you prefer? Why?

4. Should examination marks be given in percentages or in letters? Why?

5. In determining a pupil's term mark, what emphasis should be placed on his examination marks and what emphasis on his daily work? Explain.

6. Should the mark which a teacher has given a pupil ever be changed by her administrative or supervisory superiors? When, if ever?

7. It is a common remark that teachers should engage in more teaching and less testing. Do you agree with that view? Why or why not?

8. Would it be practicable to measure teaching efficiency by ascertaining the accomplishment of pupils? Why or why not? If that plan of measuring teaching efficiency were adopted, what safeguards would have to be established? Why?

9. Do you favor scholarship contests such as are found in many counties, districts, and states? Explain.

10. If you were a superintendent of schools, what would be your attitude toward a teacher or a principal who objected to the use of mental tests and standardized subject-matter tests?

11. Assuming that you are a superintendent of schools, how would you "sell" a testing program to your board of education?

12. As superintendent of schools, would you recommend that your teachers follow the normal curve in distributing their marks? Explain.

13. Would you recommend that school systems employ clinical psychologists? Why or why not? What functions should you expect such employees, if hired, to perform?

14. Do you believe that the typical teacher is qualified to administer mental tests, and to interpret and use the results? Explain.

15. Is the intelligence quotient or the mental age of the pupil the better basis on which to classify the pupil for instructional purposes? Why?

16. Should the intelligence quotient or the mental age of a pupil be kept confidential? Should the pupil or his parents be given this information? Why or why not?

17. To what extent, if any, may the pupil's intelligence quotient be used in guidance?

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PART VI

Administration of Instructional Materials

Chapter XXIV

MAKING AND USING A CURRICULUM

DEFINITIONS AND SCOPE OF THE CURRICULUM

Definitions. — Definitions of the curriculum have changed radically during recent years. In the early days the curriculum was regarded as a list of subject matter — that is, a course of study[1] — which pupils were expected to learn and to recite; since this subject matter was usually found in and limited to the school subjects — reading, writing, arithmetic, and others — the school subjects usually determined the curriculum. In those days it was believed that book learning was the only type of learning — at least the only type worth pursuing; hence, the textbook largely determined the curriculum. Pupil experiences secured outside the classroom were not regarded as a part of the curriculum.

During recent years, however, definitions of the curriculum have become much more inclusive. They have come to include not only the school subjects but all other pupil activities and experiences which the school directs. They have come to encompass all the so-called extracurricular activities, all home and community activities — in brief, all pupil activities and experiences wherever and whenever they may be secured. Although some of the activities and experiences are admittedly vitiating in their influence, they are a part of the total learning situation and cannot be ignored by the

[1] This subject matter is usually called a "course of study." A course of study may be defined as "that part of the curriculum which is organized for classroom use."

school. According to the above view, which is the one taken in this book, the curriculum may be defined as "all the activities and all the experiences in which pupils engage under the direction of the school to achieve the objectives of the school." The curriculum is as broad as life — life in the past, at present, and as it will be or should be in the future. It should be guided by worthy goals — goals which keep in mind the needs both of society and of the pupils.

Scope. — In the United States the school subjects have traditionally constituted, justly or unjustly, the heart of the curriculum, hence the growth of the curriculum may be seen from observing the development of those subjects. Regarding this development it will suffice to say that the school subjects have become more and more numerous as society has grown more and more complex and as the increasing congestion of home duties has caused the responsibility for the education of children to be shifted more and more from the home to the school. Facility in reading and writing and a knowledge of the Bible, which were the earliest educational requirements, did not long suffice; changing social conditions — and changing constantly in the direction of greater complexity — made necessary the introduction of new subjects into the curriculum. The following tabulation epitomizes the development of the subjects of the elementary school curriculum in the United States from the first schools to the present:

1635	*1775*	*1875*	*At Present*
Reading	Reading	Reading	Reading
Writing	Writing	Writing	Writing
Bible	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
	Spelling	Spelling	Spelling
	Bible	Conduct	Character Education
		Language and Grammar	Language and Grammar, especially Language
		Geography	Geography
		History and Civics	History, Civics, and Current Events

1875	*At Present*
Drawing	Art
Music	Music
Nature Study	Science
Physical Exercises	Health and Physical Education
	Industrial Arts
	Home Economics
	Agriculture
	Safety Education
	Recreation

The subjects of the secondary school have had an even more phenomenal development than those of the elementary school. Whereas the Latin Grammar School, which was the progenitor of the academy and later of the high school, limited its curriculum to a few subjects such as Latin, Greek, and higher arithmetic, the secondary school of today offers dozens of subjects. The secondary school now offers numerous courses in English, ancient languages, modern languages, sciences, mathematics, social studies, music, arts and crafts, homemaking, industrial arts, agriculture, business education, and health and physical education. In fact, in many of the larger secondary schools a pupil could attend school for a good part of his lifetime, pursue a normal program of study, and not have to repeat a subject.

THE HISTORIC LAG OF THE CURRICULUM

The lag of the curriculum behind society. — The chief criticism that has been made of the curriculum, especially that of the secondary school, has stemmed from its historical lag behind social progress. This criticism is being made today and it has always been made by educational statesmen. It was made by Comenius (1592–1671), Froebel (1782–1852), Harris (1835–1909), Parker (1837–1902), and scores of other master teachers of former generations; during recent years it has been made by hundreds of leading educators. How to correct this lag has always been one of the chief problems for the leaders in curriculum making. The rank

and file members of the profession have, of course, always been satisfied with the *status quo*.

In his memorable essay entitled, "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth," published in 1859, Herbert Spencer (1820–1903), eminent English philosopher, made a devastating attack upon the failure of the schools of England to prepare the pupils for "complete living." [1] In one place he says that, "Had there been no teaching but such as is given in our public schools, England would now [1859] be what it was in feudal times"; in another place he describes the curriculum of his time as one suitable only for celibates.[2] In brief, the schools then spent most of their time in preparing the pupils for reading the books of extinct nations, for appreciating the "grandeur that was Greece and the glory that was Rome." As Spencer said, they gave little attention to preparation for "complete living," that is, to preparation for engaging in a vocation, for maintaining health, for performing one's duties of citizenship, for becoming parents, and for participating in leisure-time activities; [3] those were desirable aims of education then, and they are desirable still.

Some lag of the curriculum behind social needs is inevitable because of the nature of education. This lag is inevitable because the chief function of the school is to transmit to the pupil the heritage of the race — the accumulated knowledge, techniques, and art. Since only a small part of this heritage can be transmitted in the brief time during which the school has the pupil under its tutelage, there comes the task of deciding what knowledge is of most worth; and since this question must be answered largely by opinion — and opinion is ever fallible — there will always be the danger that the curriculum will lag behind social needs. Since it is "human to err," any lag caused by the fallability of judgment will readily be forgiven.

[1] *Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical*, p. 54. Copyright by D. Appleton and Company.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 55.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 34.

There is another cause of the lag of the curriculum behind social needs; it makes the lag somewhat inevitable, but not always forgivable. This cause is the common trait of conservatism and the closely related trait of inertia. Many people resist change, especially change which does not meet their own desires; they prefer to go the easiest way — to follow the "cowpath of tradition." These people sometimes sloganize their desires by saying "What was good enough for our parents is good enough for us"; this becomes their slogan, especially when they see that a proposed public service would tax them more heavily.

Although they frequently retard desirable changes, conservatism and inertia should not be regarded as entirely and always deleterious. They frequently serve the purpose of causing the rejection of philosophies, theories, proposals, and "isms" which at first glance seem excellent but upon closer inspection are seen to be worthless. They serve as checks upon "crackpots," as bulwarks against self-appointed "voices of America" and would-be Messiahs who promise abundant manna for every human need if the people will only follow their leadership. In brief, conservatism and inertia act as governors against undesirable and too-rapid change. Intelligent and honest conservatism has a definite place in democracy.

Conservatism and inertia are not found among laymen alone. They obtain among a large body of school officials and employees; moreover, selfish motives sometimes actuate these officials and employees. Many of these officials and employees are opposed to curricular innovations because they see in them a threat to the continuance of their vested interests; they believe that, if changes in the curriculum are made, they will be thrown out of employment or required to teach subjects they do not want to teach; they fear that textbooks and similar materials which they have prepared will no longer be used. It is a sad commentary that the new subjects have usually come into the curriculum upon the demand of certain lay

groups and not from the leadership of school officials and employees.

On the other hand, after a subject has secured a place in the curriculum, it has been like "pulling teeth" to eliminate the subject or any part of it. Numerous new subjects and parts of subjects have come into the curriculum, but only a few of them have been eliminated. Many of these subjects



FIG. 52. — Children in School at Olive View Sanitarium for the Tuberculous, Los Angeles, California, Public Schools. (All modern schools now make provision for meeting the needs of special groups such as the crippled, blind, deaf, speech defectives, and tuberculous.)

or parts of them are retained long after the need for them has passed away; millions of dollars of precious funds are wasted annually upon them. They are kept intact by conservatism, worship of tradition, and vested interests. Intelligent and courageous leadership will be necessary to correct this situation.

One frequently held view with reference to the relation between the curriculum and social change has just been presented. To summarize, that view insists that society is now perfect or nearly so, and that the function of the school is to perpetuate society unchanged. If the view concedes, as it occasionally does, that new factors are being introduced into the social order, it denies that these new factors require a new type of school program.

The other frequently held view affirms that society is *not* perfect and that the school should assiduously and constantly seek improvement in it. This view, which is coming more and more to be held by educators, was well summarized by Thomas H. Briggs in an address before a recent convention of the American Association of School Administrators: [1]

> . . . Everyone, with the exception of the insignificant minority who with ignorant myopia are wholly satisfied with the small segment of society with which they come into contact, will agree that some changes are desirable. What these are, who shall determine them, and how they shall be brought about are the real questions at issue. If it is maintained that any teacher has the right or the duty to decide without reference to popular judgment and to proceed in an effort to reconstruct society by influencing minds not yet sufficiently matured and informed fairly to judge his proposals and arguments, the idea is preposterous. It is rejected by all but a small group of extremists who have more zeal for reform than they have courage and ability to convert their peers. . . . The proposal is not only contrary to the principle of democracy, but it is impossible. The determination of what social changes are desirable is the responsibility of adult society. It will not permit an open campaign of reform that the majority has not approved, and it is not decently honest surreptitiously to attempt thru the education of youth a reform that the public has not previously approved.
>
> . . . The best means to this end of course is a program that leads youth to be concerned with public welfare and its problems, to be intelligent about them, to have a sense of obligation to do something to solve them, and by thinking for themselves to arrive at independent conclusions upon which they have a conscience to act. This is a consummation devoutly to be wished. . . .

[1] *Department of Superintendence: Official Report*, 1936, pp. 62–63.

. . . Education should strive consistently and skilfully to make youth hospitable to proposals to change and intelligently critical of them. A paramount responsibility of the public schools is to arouse in youth an interest in the issues that concern public welfare, to lead them to understand conditions, especially as they have changed or are changing, to make them aware of the implications of the several possible courses of action, and to stimulate them with an ardent and effective ambition to

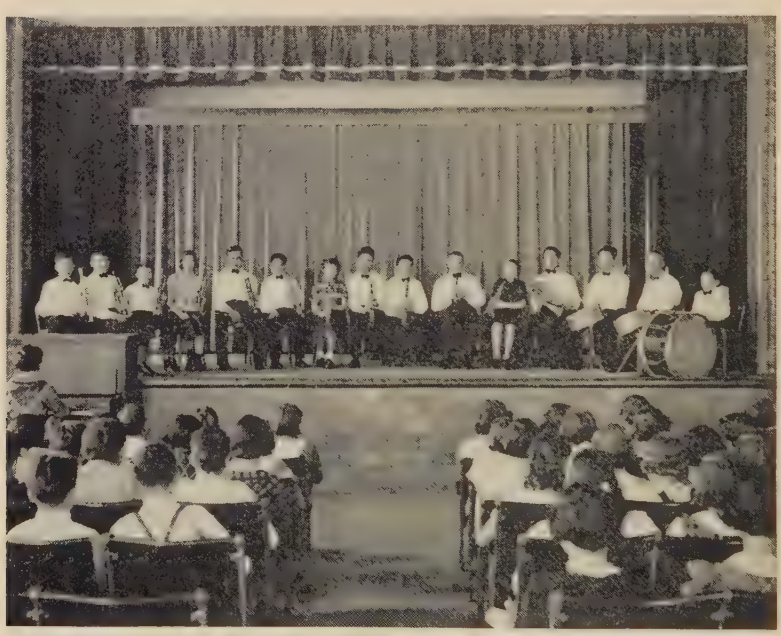


FIG. 53. — School Band in a School for Crippled Children, Oakman School, Detroit, Michigan. (Every modern school now gives instruction in music as a part of its curriculum.)

play their parts, each according to his capacities, in making what seems the best course of action effective.

Almost before a new course of study is complete, although its construction may have been attended with perspicacity and care, it will have become archaic in many parts. This out-of-dateness happens because social conditions and needs change from year to year; in fact, they change from day to

day. We can truly say with Heraclitus that "there is nothing permanent; everything flows." Society changes whether the school does or not; it often changes in spite of the school. Fortunately, society has many educational agencies, other than the school, which help it in its onward march; it has the radio, newspapers, magazines, books, the cinema, the church, and dozens of other agencies.

It should not be inferred from the foregoing remarks that there is a revolution in social needs every "change of the moon"; social needs change usually by gradual evolution, rather than by revolution. The tree of civilization has its roots firmly implanted in the soil of the past. In his long struggle man has developed certain verities, or what he regards as verities, and he is not inclined to throw these into the "garbage heap" of civilization overnight. When, however, institutions are notoriously tardy in adjusting themselves to social needs, the public is likely to lose patience with them and to change them by revolution — not necessarily a revolution accompanied by bloodshed, but one characterized by violent changes in the institutions to bring them in line with social needs. That society progresses gradually, although the curve of advancement has many ups and downs and the momentum of progress through the years is not uniform, will be seen by a study of progress in any field of endeavor.

To summarize, the curriculum must be constantly adapted to the needs of a continuously changing — and, let us hope, constantly improving — society. Under an ideal practice the curriculum would be slightly in the vanguard of social progress. If the needed revisions are not made, the curriculum cannot meet the needs of a dynamic society, and there is danger that it will lag many years behind social progress and become an excrescence upon society rather than a nourishment to it. Any such lag will result in a loss of time and energy devoted to school purposes; pupils will become attracted to progressing activities outside the school and will

want to leave the school; and the public is likely to lose faith in the school and to regard the school's budget as obese. The lag can only be prevented by school officials and employees who are constant, intelligent, unselfish, and courageous students of the never-ending and turbulently flowing stream of civilization. School officials and employees cannot merely observe that stream; they must help to purify it, to straighten its channel, and often to change its course.

The lag of the curriculum behind the learner. — Another criticism frequently made of the curriculum is that it is not adapted to the needs of the learner, especially that it does not sufficiently consider the interests and the abilities of the individual. This criticism has been made especially by leaders in psychology and education; it has come less frequently from laymen. It was made by educational reformers of centuries ago before experimental psychology was born; it was made by Pestalozzi (1746–1827), Herbart (1776–1841), Rousseau (1712–1778), and many other educational pioneers. The criticism has become especially frequent and cogent during recent years because of the development of an experimental psychology and a science of education; as a result of this development, no longer must educators entirely guess regarding "how the mind works" and how learning takes place.

The old-time school followed a philosophy which emphasized almost entirely the importance of group solidarity and placed little or no emphasis upon developing the potentialities of the individual members of the group. Moreover, as has usually been true in all times, the conceptions of mind held by old-time educators "worked hand in glove" with this philosophy. It was then believed that individuals were very much alike in natural endowment and that they could be made more alike through education; the manner in which they were to be made more alike was through similar subject matter presented in the same manner. With these views in vogue it is easy to see how the old-time school came to be

subject matter centered and how the pupil almost came to be "the forgotten man."

Regarding the conceptions of mind held in the early days, it may be said that the predominating group of educators assumed with John Locke (1632–1704) that the mind was a *tabula rasa* — a clean slate upon which anything might be written. This group discounted theories of differences in innate abilities and in potentialities among individuals. It believed that one slate was as clean, and could be written upon as easily, as another; the mind was a slate and subject matter was the material to be written upon that slate.

Another group of educators, which was closely related to and soon succeeded the *tabula rasa* group, believed that the mind was composed of a series of distinct and separate faculties — thinking, feeling, willing, etc. — and that each of these faculties could be trained through exercise just as a muscle may be thus trained; by inference this group regarded the mind as composed of several "slates" rather than one. In psychology the members of the group were known as the "faculty psychologists," and in education they were called the "formal disciplinists." These educators believed that the chief purpose of education was to "train the mind," and that such subjects as arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and Latin were subjects par excellence for providing this "training"; they believed, moreover, that the training received in a given field would automatically "transfer" to other fields. Method of instruction was pre-eminent with them and pupil interest and instructional content were of slight concern.

During recent decades another group of educators has come to the fore. This group denies that the mind is constituted of separate and distinct faculties functioning separately. It believes that the mind is an entity — an entity with itself and with the whole body. It no longer worships the disciplinary and knowledge-is-power processes and aims of education, but emphasizes the development of individual capacities and the preparation of the pupil for economic,

civic, and social usefulness. With this group, method of instruction, of course, is not neglected, but it no longer dictates what shall be taught; instead, method has become the vehicle for carrying the precious cargo of instruction, namely, the content.

This group believes that the needs of the educational consumer, that is, the pupil, should always be kept in mind in educational procedures. It realizes that unless these needs are kept in mind the consumer will not consume — at least, not all that he might; and it realizes that if the pupil does not consume he will not be prepared to take his proper place in society when he has become an adult. The modern educator is, therefore, studying and catering to the learner; he is attempting "to psychologize instruction," as Pestalozzi did years ago, but he is using different procedures than Pestalozzi used. He realizes that there are great differences in the interests and abilities of pupils, that the pupil learns best when he is gripped with a vital and worth-while purpose, and that self-activity is a *sine qua non* for learning. He believes that under the guidance of the teacher the pupil should be permitted to have a voice in determining the content of the curriculum. He shows interrelationships between subject-matter areas and their relation to life situations and social needs.

THE TECHNIQUE AND THE PERSONNEL FOR CURRICULUM MAKING

In an earlier paragraph the curriculum was defined as "all the activities and all the experiences in which pupils engage under the direction of the school to achieve the objectives of the school." From this definition it is obvious that the curriculum is the most vital part of instruction; therefore, the manner in which it is made and used largely determines the value of instruction, hence the value of the school. If the objectives of the curriculum are not adequate and not meritorious, if the pupil activities and experiences

which make up the curriculum do not meet psychological and sociological needs, there will be waste — waste to the pupil and waste of public funds. A poor curriculum often causes pupils to be bored, to become discouraged, and — what is more to be deplored — to fail and to quit school.

The old-fashioned technique of curriculum construction. — The old-fashioned technique of curriculum making may be illustrated from a chapter in the professional autobiography of the writer. This chapter has its setting in a small city many years ago. The writer had just been graduated from college and was elected superintendent of schools in the city in question. He was young and ambitious to do something "big and startling"; therefore, one of his first official acts was to start a revision of the curriculum. He did not consider whether a revision was necessary, or whether he was competent to make it. Don Quixote-like he plunged into the task. His knowledge of the curriculum was on a plane with that exhibited by an experienced school board member who defined the curriculum to a new board member in these words: "The curriculum is that thing which every new superintendent finds it necessary to tinker with immediately upon taking up his work."

The technique which the writer used in making a curriculum for the school system in question was almost universally used a few years ago, and is employed even today by many school officials and employees. As an example of a technique which should *not* be used, it invites further description. The first step taken was to write to the superintendents of a few of the larger school systems, such as New York City, Chicago, and Philadelphia, requesting copies of their courses of study. These courses in hand, our work began in earnest. Our technique of curriculum construction was the "scissors and paste" technique; it might also be labeled the "tinkering" technique. We began work on spelling, because we had been told that spelling is one of the most mechanical and easiest of the school subjects, and

we desired to tackle first the easiest subject. We would read what seemed to be an excellent paragraph in the Chicago spelling course of study and would transfer it by scissors and paste, without any attempt at adaptation, to our course of study; another paragraph would be transferred from the New York City course; another, from that of Philadelphia; and still others from other courses. In a few hours the subject of spelling was finished and we proudly surveyed our handiwork; to us the making of a curriculum required but to say, "presto begone" and the task was finished.

It is possible that the curriculum which we made was worse than none. Our chief mistakes were the following: we assumed that curriculum making was a one-man job rather than a co-operative undertaking of the superintendent, principals, and teachers; we did not have a philosophy of life and of education, hence no fundamental objectives which the curriculum should be expected to realize and the method by which they should be realized; we did not keep in mind the social conditions and needs of our community; we were oblivious to the needs of each pupil, hence no provision was made for individual differences; no suggestions were made to teachers regarding the topics which were of most importance and the sequence in which the topics should be taught; no suggestions were made regarding efficient methods of instruction which teachers might use; no reference books were listed; no criteria were given for judging the results of teaching; and the curriculum was regarded as a fixed thing with no provision for variation from it by the different teachers nor for keeping it up-to-date.

The modern technique of curriculum making. — The modern technique of curriculum making is vastly different from the technique which has just been described.[1] More and more this modern technique is being used; consequently,

[1] This modern technique is briefly described herewith. It is more completely described in several of the references listed in the Selected References at the close of this chapter.

valuable curricula are much more prevalent than formerly, and an attempt is being constantly made to improve the technique. In fact, during recent years the improvement of the curricula of the American schools has received more thought and attention of school officials and employees than any other phase of schoolwork. The lag of the curriculum, described in the preceding section, is being rapidly reduced through these ubiquitous and statesmanlike efforts. There is scarcely a school system which is not questioning the merit of the present curriculum and which is not attempting to improve it. The world-wide upheaval during recent years has greatly stimulated this attempt by calling attention forcefully to the lag of the curriculum behind socio-economic needs; it is axiomatic that "the devil can be much more easily reformed when he is sick."

In constructing a curriculum certain steps must be taken, and certain principles must be followed in taking those steps; in other words, there must be an underlying philosophy for all steps. The central aim of all the steps should be to secure a curriculum which will meet the needs of pupils and adults in a constantly changing civilization; moreover, the materials of the curriculum should be selected, organized, and administered in such a way as to contribute to the realization of the central aim of education, namely, *creative thinking*. If adult needs monopolize the school's time, and if pupil interests are neglected, the instruction is not likely to "get across" to the pupil; on the contrary, if pupil interests monopolize the school's time, and if adult needs are neglected, the pupils are not likely to be prepared to take their proper place in society. The curriculum must be both "child centered" and "adult centered"; it must be adapted to the stage of development of the individual pupil and must look ahead to the time when the pupil has grown into adulthood. To reconcile these poles is a problem for educational statesmanship; to veer too closely toward one of the poles is sure to result in a lopsided education.

What are the steps which should be followed in curriculum construction? A perusal of the literature on the subject evinces that there is general agreement among the authorities regarding the steps in or the rules and plans for curriculum construction. All the authorities suggest the need for the formulation of worth-while and definite objectives for the curriculum. All of them also make clear the need for a

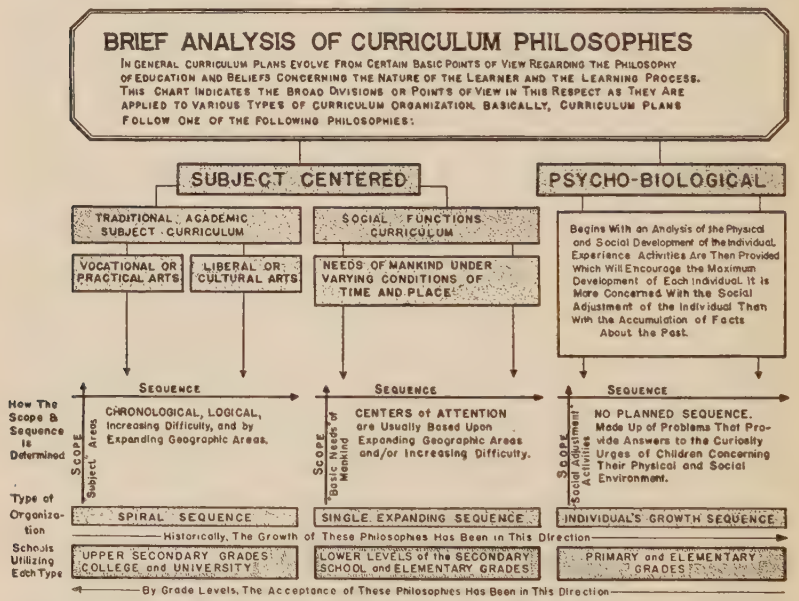


FIG. 54. — Types of Curriculum Philosophies (From L. W. Clark, "Curriculum Changes," *Sierra Educational News*, November, 1938, Vol. XXXIV, p. 34.)

study of child life at its various stages, for a study of social conditions and trends, and for a critical selection of subject matter which will satisfy these stages, conditions, and trends. Some disagreement, though, is noted regarding the relative emphasis which should be given to psychological and to sociological needs. To summarize, there is general agreement among the authorities that the following steps are necessary:

1. Objectives for the curriculum must be formulated, and all succeeding steps should be taken in the light of these objectives. The formulation of these objectives requires consideration of (1) the kind of world we live in and the kind that we should live in and (2) the kind of philosophy of the educative process we should have.

2. Materials of instruction must be selected, organized, and administered to meet the objectives formulated in step 1.

3. The preceding steps must be experimented with and the results evaluated.

4. Revisions must be made in the light of the experimentation and evaluation mentioned in step 3.

5. The procedure must be continued. Curriculum making is a never-ending task. It proceeds as society changes and as the pupils change.

Respect for science and philosophy in curriculum making. — Until about 1910 curriculum making was largely in the hands of subject-matter specialists who were dominated by a philosophy of formal discipline, the sacredness of subject matter, and a worship of the past and the *status quo*. Moreover, in those earlier days opinion largely determined school procedures — opinion often unsupported by any objective data. The science of education, as it is known today, had not yet been born.

About 1910, however, a group of educators led by such pioneers as J. M. Rice, E. L. Thorndike, C. H. Judd, and L. P. Ayres began to use objective methods of research upon educational problems. The members of this group — and the group soon came to number thousands — were no longer satisfied with "guessing at" the aims, processes, and procedures of education; they demanded facts. Thus, the science of education, as it is known today, came into being.

These educators set about to study society, subject matter, and the learner — all necessary factors to be kept in mind by curriculum makers. They raised questions regarding each of these factors and they organized scientific investigations to try to find the answers to the questions. They undertook to ascertain social needs through such procedures as tabulating the vocabularies of pupils and adults, the arithmetic

problems which pupils and adults meet in actual life, and the language which pupils and adults use and misuse. By means of case studies, job analyses, and other techniques, they tabulated the activities of people in various walks of life. They compared the content of textbooks. They constructed standardized tests to ascertain the ability of pupils to learn and they constructed others to measure how much the pupils had learned. They investigated pupil reactions to various types of subject matter and to different methods of teaching each type of subject matter. They studied the nature of the individual learner — his intelligence, eye movements, fatigue factors, etc. These are only a few of the fields which the science of education has been exploring.

Unquestionably this movement — the scientific movement in education — has been of incalculable benefit to the curriculum makers. Although it has done scarcely more than scratch the surface of its potentialities, it has provided much helpful information of social conditions and trends, and of the nature of the learner; it has accomplished much toward showing us *what is* regarding these matters. Without its help the teaching profession would still be entirely guided by hunches, guesses, and isms. However, it was soon discovered that the science of education could not solve all school problems; it was seen that it could give acquaintance with present conditions and with the past, but that it could not completely appraise results and suggest the line of march for the future.

Science is but one of the handmaids of social progress. The other handmaid is a sound philosophy. To secure a desirable curriculum, science and philosophy must work together. Science has the function of securing data which will show *what has been* and *what is;* for example, it will point out that the writing vocabulary of the average person has been and is limited to a few hundred words and will name those words. A sound philosophy has the function of suggesting *what ought to be;* for example, it will suggest that the writing

vocabulary of the average person be enlarged rather than kept as it is and will indicate how the vocabulary should be used.

"Fads and frills" in the curriculum. — The schools have frequently been criticized for harboring "fads and frills," for engaging in "boondoggling." When the term "fad and frill" is used, it is implied that a non-essential is being harbored. Every new subject has been compelled to run this gantlet of criticism — a criticism which has come especially from the conservatives of society. Even the "three R's" did not escape. When economy waves strike the school, as they always do in times of business depression, the newer subjects are usually the first to feel the ax; they are the first to be eliminated in spite of the fact that they may be more valuable to the pupil and to society than some of the older subjects.

These new subjects — the so-called fads and frills — are also frequently criticized on the ground that they are more expensive than the traditional subjects and therefore cannot be afforded. Although some of the newer subjects require more equipment, smaller classes, and more expensive teachers than the traditional subjects, it has been demonstrated that many of the newer subjects are *not* more expensive than the traditional ones. When pupils come to school they expect to enter or are required to enter a certain number of classes, and it is often as cheap to provide classes in the newer subjects such as art, music, agriculture, and commerce as it is to provide classes in the traditional subjects such as English, history, mathematics, science, and foreign languages.

School officials and employees, therefore, must ever be students of educational values, especially of the relative values of the school subjects and of all parts of those subjects. They must keep in mind relative values because only a small portion of what might be taught can be taught. They must place first things first. Herbert Spencer's memorable book, *Education*, tells in rhyme the necessity for the curriculum maker to keep in mind his span-long life and to be

guided by relative values; the rhyme (Spencer calls it a song) goes: [1]

> Could a man be secure
> That his days would endure
> As of old, for a thousand long years,
> What things might he know!
> What deeds might he do!
> And all without hurry or care.

On the one hand, teachers and school officials must not be guilty of harboring useless fads and frills. On the other hand, they must be able and willing to defend new subject matter and new procedures when these are an improvement over, or a supplement to, the old; in fact they should be on the lookout for this type of subject matter. They should remember that the so-called fad and frill of yesterday often becomes the necessity of today. In brief, they must be eternal reformers.

The personnel for curriculum making. — Whereas in former years the curriculum was constructed by one "master mind" — usually the superintendent of schools, a supervisor, or some other person appointed by the superintendent — the modern curriculum is made or revised through the cooperation of the superintendent, the supervisors, the principals, the teachers, and all other educational employees; moreover, persons from other fields in the community are frequently requested to give their views, especially regarding objectives and subject matter. In the more progressive school systems, the practice of having one person make the curriculum has passed into limbo; this change is fortunate, because the performance of this function is too time-consuming and too technical for one person however omnipotent and energetic he may be. Since it is difficult for any person to see "wholes," and since the curriculum should take account of wholes — society as a whole and the whole nature of the pupil — it is advisable to have a conclave of the best minds

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 29.

in various fields working on the curriculum; in this conclave both scientists and philosophers should be represented, both students of sociology and of psychology — in fact, all points of view should be represented and integrated. One group should not be permitted to "run away" with the curriculum.

The tendency, therefore, is for the superintendent of schools to appoint committees to make the curriculum; and, since it is necessary to keep the curriculum in pace with a constantly changing society and with new knowledge of the nature of the pupil, there are advantages in making these committees more or less permanent. In small school systems, for example, those having less than eight or ten teachers, the usual and best practice is to have the whole teaching corps work on one subject or a group of subjects at a time under the immediate direction of the superintendent of schools; the whole personnel would also work co-operatively on curriculum objectives. In the larger school systems the usual and best practice is to appoint various committees to be responsible for each of the several subjects or groups of subjects. Over these committees is often placed an executive and supervisory committee which sees that the whole curriculum is balanced, is without gaps, and is in line with the formulated objectives.

The making of the curriculum should not, however, be entirely a committee function. The suggestions of *all* members of the teaching corps, whether they happen to be members of the committee or not, should be sought; to secure these, suggestions should be helpful to the curriculum and stimulating to the teachers who make the suggestions. Every teacher must help in putting the curriculum into operation and should therefore be familiar with how it was made and how it may be adapted to the needs of his pupils.

The use of the curriculum. — The old-fashioned curriculum was a stereotyped affair with, as has already been said, its emphasis on the acquisition of facts through drill. All schools were expected to teach the same facts, and all

pupils — dull, bright, interested, and uninterested — were expected to learn and to "recite" those facts. Only a small amount of attention was devoted to problem solving, particularly to the solving of problems which were interesting to the pupils and socially valuable. The "project curriculum" or the "activity curriculum," that is, a curriculum whose activities and experiences arise from the natural activities and the widening interests of the children, either was unheard of or was considered to be shallow pedagogy.

Modern school officials, on the contrary, make it possible for the curriculum to be used in a more sensible manner than formerly. They do not insist that the curriculum which is in use, whether it be state, city, or county, be followed slavishly; rather they permit — even insist — that it be adapted to the needs of the local school and of each pupil of the school. Moreover, the modern curriculum is so constructed that it may be readily adapted to varying situations. For example, although it may establish certain minimal essentials or constants, which it is expected shall become a part of the experience of all normal children, it reduces these essentials to bedrock; it suggests certain alternatives in subject matter from which teachers and pupils may choose; it is rich in suggestions on optional subject matter — subject matter which may be presented or omitted as the teacher deems best; and suggestions on excellent teaching methods are given.

In every way possible, therefore, the modern school is encouraging its teachers not to regard the curriculum as an inviolable instrument, but as a growing, dynamic affair. It encourages the teachers to adapt the curriculum to the needs of each pupil and gives them many suggestions on how to make this adaptation. It encourages them to experiment with new curricular materials and with new teaching methods. It permits, even encourages, the teachers to experiment with the Dalton plan, the Winnetka plan, the activity curriculum, the use of the radio, educational tours, or other newer types of curriculum, teaching method, or school organization.

TEACHING CONTROVERSIAL SUBJECT MATTER

To include or to exclude controversial material. — Problems innumerable and baffling have always faced society and probably will face it until the millennium. These problems concern every phase of human affairs and many of them have been extant since the beginning of man. They concern religion, temperance and prohibition, racial relationships, evolution, marriage and divorce, war and pacifism, conscription, collectivism versus "rugged individualism," immigration, democracy versus other types of government, the constitution, the courts, crime, delinquency, capital and labor, natural resources, electric power, the railroads, taxation, relief and employment, pensions, the tariff, and the money and banking system. The list could be continued ad infinitum.

Shall such questions be included in or excluded from the curriculum? If they are included, how shall they be presented? These questions are faced constantly by every school official and employee.

Wars have been fought, political campaigns have been waged, religious crusades have been conducted, and communities, states, and nations have divided over these issues. Whatever the attitude taken by the school regarding the discussion of these problems, the discussion of them goes on by pupils and adults in every walk of life. Innumerable school officials and employees have become embroiled in bitter controversies over their attempts to deal with the issues, and have become the objects of investigations which have often caused them to lose their positions; sometimes these officials and employees have been martyrs to worthy causes, but at times they have been guilty of undemocratic and tactless acts in their efforts at dealing with these issues.

Either of two positions may be taken with respect to the teaching of controversial issues. First, they may be ignored and excluded; second, they may be included and discussed. A considerable portion of the public believes that the school

should not deal with any controversial subjects. It believes that the function of the school is to maintain the social order as it is and that there are enough facts to teach without spending time on controversial questions; it believes that such questions cannot be answered by the school anyway and that, if let alone, they "will answer themselves." Certain of the more liberal members of this group would normally favor the discussion of such questions, especially the less controversial and less baffling ones, but they believe that most teachers are not qualified to direct the discussion of them, or they believe that inflamed differences of opinion, "set ways," and prejudices on the part of the adult community would prevent free and scientific discussion.

The other position affirms that it is the obligation of the school to deal with life in all its important aspects, and that controversial issues, since they are a prominent part of the drama of life, cannot be conscientiously ignored. This position can be more easily defended than the first one. The school should not concern itself with facts, known truths, and settled problems alone, but should bring knowledge to bear upon the problems which present society faces. Knowledge of the past is of little value unless it is brought to bear upon the understanding of the present and the predicting and controlling of the future; "knowledge is power" only when it is used. The school must decide whether it will qualify its pupils to take intelligent part in the discussion of live issues, or whether it will ignore them and leave these future citizens to be the easy victims of vicious propaganda. Among free peoples, free discussion of problems is regarded as a birthright.

The methods of presenting controversial material. — If controversial issues are to be discussed, which ones shall be discussed and how shall they be discussed? Regarding the first part of the question, it is manifest that all controversial issues cannot be discussed because of lack of time; there are thousands of controversial issues. Those few must be selected, therefore, which have the largest and most urgent social

bearing and which are best adapted to the needs of the learner. In the upper grades, such subjects as the old-time debate on whether fire is more destructive than water should give way to such questions as whether the government should provide a job for everyone; in the lower grades — and at least a beginning in discussing controversial questions should be made in these grades — the question of whether marbles should be played "for keeps" would be more appropriate to discuss than the tariff question. Moreover, many issues will have to be banned from discussion, at least temporarily, because of inflamed public opinion or because of state laws and local regulations opposed to such discussion; still others will have to be discussed with special tact. According to an investigation of the Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum of the Department of Superintendence, most school principals report that public opinion, as a rule, does not require the school to avoid the discussion of controversial issues; this belief was held especially at the high school level.[1]

How shall controversial questions be discussed? There are two groups of thought with reference to this question. One group is unwilling to have all sides of a question presented; it believes in indoctrinating [2] — in propagandizing for — only one point of view. It would tell the pupils what to believe and would insist upon their believing it; it would indoctrinate opinions as well as facts. This view frequently finds expression in the resolutions of various organizations — political, religious, economic, fraternal, etc. — which ask that certain beliefs be taught in the schools and that competing beliefs be banned; these groups are occasionally successful in having their views written into state laws or into the rules and regulations of the local board of education. Many textbooks also present only one view of controversial questions and that view, of course, is the most popular one in the state or com-

[1] "The Social Studies Curriculum," *Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association,* 1936, Table 27, p. 303.

[2] The term indoctrinate comes from the Latin word *doctrino,* meaning to teach.

munity in which the textbook is used. Many teachers teach only one side of controversial questions and insist upon their pupils adopting that side; often the pupil's mark becomes a Damoclean sword to enforce this expectation. The usual arguments for indoctrination — that is, one-sided indoctrination — have been summarized by Carleton Washburne as follows, although it should be stated that Washburne is opposed to indoctrination on the ground that its methods and aims are opposed to the methods and aims of true education: [1]

> (1) We must rebuild our social order —, or, if we are on the other side of the fence, we must maintain the status quo. . . .
>
> . . . the State needs trained citizens. It needs a certain like-mindedness among them in order that there may be cohesiveness. It needs certain common ideals. . . .
>
> (2) Education to be realistic and to count in the life of the child must have the same zeal and emotional drive which is called for by the necessity of changing — or preserving — the social order. Schools in which there is no indoctrination tend to be cloisteral, to be out of touch with the live world outside. . . .
>
> (3) Indoctrination is inevitable. . . . A teacher, by his very nature as a teacher, imposes his views and attitudes on children. . . . A failure to indoctrinate, moreover, is in itself an indoctrination for the status quo or for the point of view held by parents of the community.

The other group of thought, while admitting that a certain amount of indoctrination is inevitable because of "the frame of reference" of the teacher or the school, rejects any theory of teaching which attempts to close a person's mind on controversial issues or which attempts to prohibit him from the exercise of his inherent right "to believe as he pleases." It believes that the welfare of a democracy, except in times of national peril such as war, rests upon the free interchange of opinions. Washburne gives the following arguments against indoctrination: [2]

[1] "Indoctrination versus Education," *The Social Frontier* (April, 1936), Vol. II, pp. 212–213.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 213.

(1) Indoctrination is unfair to the child. . . . He has a right to see each side clearly and fairly presented. . . . But, if he cannot count on his teacher's objectivity and honesty, where shall he turn?

(2) Indoctrination is the antithesis of education. . . . Education should lead toward growth. Indoctrination stultifies growth.

(3) Anyone who supposes that he has the one and final solution to any problem is inexcusably bigoted and is, therefore, unfit to educate children. . . . The growth of society depends upon our free exploration of all possible avenues of escape, of all possible avenues toward our ultimate ideals. Indoctrination shuts off all avenues but one.

(4) . . . If one group can use the schools to indoctrinate the children toward its particular answers to controversial questions, so can another group. . . .

On any controversial question this group would bring out the facts and the arguments on all sides of the question; it would permit — in fact, insist — that the pupil state his own opinions and formulate his own conclusions; complete impartiality would be its goal. In other words, it would practice the scientific attitude, that is, the inclination to find the truth, and by precept and example it would try to instill this attitude into the pupils; this admittedly would be indoctrination — indoctrination in the scientific attitude. It would teach pupils to distinguish between facts and opinions, and it would indoctrinate them only with facts and the eternal verities. It would realize that "truth is an elusive goddess" — elusive because of new discoveries and of differences in interpretations.

Academic freedom and social responsibility. — The place of the teacher in the handling of controversial issues has been indicated in broad outline in the preceding paragraphs. That place demands that the teacher not be shackled in his attempts to lead his pupils to the fountain of truth. In other words, the teacher should have academic freedom and he should have it so long as he is seeking the truth, and is using fair means in his quest.

Like all rights, the right to academic freedom is, however, a relative matter; it does not give the teacher a license to

say and to do anything that he pleases. The right does not permit careless handling of the truth; it does not permit libel and similar practices. It does not permit the teacher to sabotage democracy and its institutions. Whereas the teacher has the right to state his own views on any issue that is being discussed, he also has the obligation to present all sides of the issue and of placing his pupils in a position to formulate their own beliefs. The right to academic freedom does not give the teacher the right to be an eternal propagandist for any personal and unusual doctrine, creed, or dogma. His obligation is fundamentally "to teach rather than to advocate." When he states his views, he should state them calmly and judiciously, and always with the stipulation that they are his opinion only, which need not be accepted by his pupils; he should speak more in the tone of opinion and less in the tone of certainty. This is the only sort of academic freedom to which he has a right; for him to expect or to exact more than this is likely to make him the fair quest of "heretic seekers."

The right to academic freedom also places upon the teacher the responsibility of being well informed on the many sides of all important controversial questions. Without this erudition the teacher is not likely to be able to bring out all sides of a question and to guide the search for the solution of the question; without it, too, there is greater danger that he will substitute his opinion for knowledge, and this is the essence of pedagogical quackery.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM

The types of organization. — Many types of curriculum organization are in use. These types are distributed between two extremes. In one of these extremes, the curriculum is organized by separate subjects — English, algebra, botany, etc. This is the traditional type of organization and is found in most schools today. In the other extreme, all subject lines are eliminated and all subject matter is merged into

what is usually known as a "fused," "integrated," or "unified" curriculum. This type of organization, or a variation of it, is coming to be widely used. In its report, the Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum noted the three following widely used types of curriculum organization for the social studies: [1]

(1) Separate subject courses in geography, history, civics, economics, sociology, and other social studies.

(2) General social science courses with the materials from the different fields organized in a definite relationship to the social studies as a whole.

(3) An integrated curriculum in which the social studies are organized with or without the preservation of their identity, in a definite relationship to the *entire* curriculum.

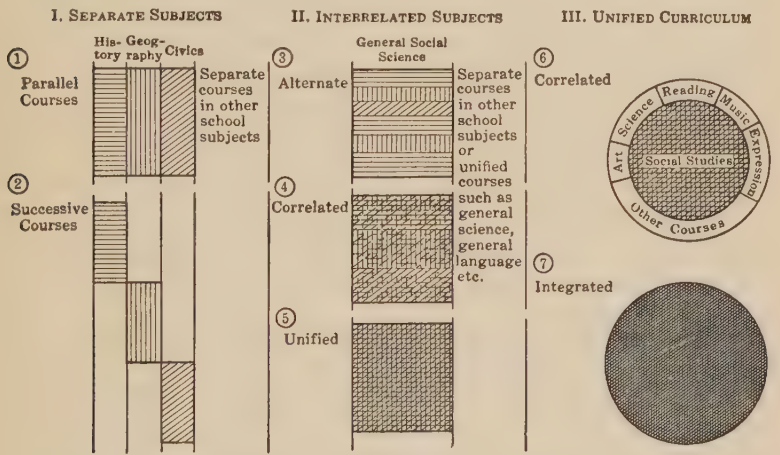


Fig. 55. — General Plans of Organizing the Social Studies and of Relating them to the Curriculum as a Whole. (From "Social Studies Curriculum," *Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association*, 1936, p. 181.)

The report of the commission labels these three types of organization as follows: (1) separate subjects organization, (2) interrelated subjects organization, and (3) unified curriculum organization. Under each of these types of organization various practices are noted. A diagrammatic representation of these three types of organization, together with certain variations, is shown in Fig. 55. Observation shows that these

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 179.

types of organization are used in other studies as well as the social studies; in fact, they could be used in any study.

Merits of the various types of organization. — Shall the curriculum be organized on a separate subjects basis, or shall all subjects be abolished and a fused, integrated, or unified curriculum be substituted? If neither of these two extremes is deemed best, where is the optimum position between them? These questions have been controversial since Herbart (1776–1841) advocated the correlation [1] of the various subjects of the curriculum. Under the leadership of the "progressive education" group, which usually advocates "activity" organization, fusion, integration,[1] and unification, the questions have become very live during recent years. Although there has been much experimentation with the various types of organization and although each type has many advocates, there are as yet no objective data which indicate superiority for any type. The Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum suggests that the following instructional and administrative factors be kept in mind when selecting the type of curriculum organization: [2]

1. Are the teachers familiar with the adopted plan and adequately prepared to give it a fair trial?
2. Are the patrons of the school and the public in general likely to assume a sympathetic attitude toward the proposed innovations?
3. Are the principals and supervisors thoroughly familiar with the changes and competent to direct the new program?
4. Are appropriate building facilities and proper equipment and furnishings provided?
5. Are suitable textbooks and adequate instructional supplies available?
6. Can the proposed plan be administered in a departmental school, platoon school, or any other type of school organization now in operation in the local school system?

[1] In correlation, the subjects are retained, but the materials in each subject are related to the materials in other subjects. In fusion, integration, or unification all subject lines are obliterated and a problem or topic becomes the controlling factor in the organization of material.

[2] *Op. cit.*, p. 179.

7. Does the proposed plan provide a comprehensive study of the social studies as a whole and at the same time insure a proper emphasis of each aspect of the social studies?

8. Does the plan present human relationships in the most natural and realistic manner?

9. Does the plan promote horizontal articulation of experiences in the different subjects at each grade level?

10. Does the plan demand constant reorganization of materials by the pupils and insure the consideration of all elements or aspects of the topic of instruction mentioned above?

11. Does the plan afford the teacher the greatest possible freedom in adapting the made-in-advance curriculum to the needs and interests of pupils in particular classroom situation?

The difference in views of those who favor subject organizations and of those who favor the fused, integrated, or unified organization is occasioned primarily by a difference in philosophy of education. The advocates of the subject-matter plan of organization hold the view that the subject contains the necessary subject matter and that this subject matter has been secured from the best experience of the race. The advocates of the fused, integrated, or unified plan of organization hold the view that curriculum making should start with socially significant problems, issues, or topics, and should organize all material around such problems, issues, or topics; these advocates were known formerly as the project-program educators.

In the final analysis, therefore, the question becomes: Shall the subject-matter organization of the curriculum be used or shall the activity [1] organization be employed? Since objective data are not available to answer the question, we shall have to be content with a summarization of the arguments in favor of each plan. The usual arguments advanced for the subject organization are as follows:

[1] There are many views of what the activity program or curriculum really is. Some persons see it as a plan which gives full play to the spontaneous interests, the likes and dislikes, of the pupil. The best authorities, however, see it as an opportunity for the pupils and the teachers to work together in choosing and in attacking problems of social import adapted to the interest and understanding of children.

1. The subject — at least when well organized — contains the subject matter which pupils need and which they should, therefore, be expected to have. The activity curriculum, on the contrary, is child determined and likely to be whimsical.

2. The subject gives assurance that knowledge, attitudes, and skills which are needed by the pupils will not be missed. The child-determined curriculum, on the contrary, is likely to possess many gaps.

3. The subject is likely to be logically organized, and pupils are brought to see the structure of knowledge.

The usual arguments in favor of the activity curriculum are as follows:

1. The activity curriculum is organized in terms of problems, issues, and topics of interest to the pupils; with the belief that such purposes are necessary learning stimuli, it keeps in mind pupil purposes. The subject curriculum, on the contrary, is primarily adult centered.

2. Provided proper guidance is given by the teacher, the activity curriculum may be made to include all subject matter which is really necessary. The subject curriculum, on the contrary, is likely to contain much subject matter which is not socially valuable.

3. The activity curriculum leads to individual growth by causing the pupil to see relationships without which learning is not very profound. The subject curriculum, on the contrary, emphasizes isolated facts which are not related to the problems of life.

MEASURING THE CURRICULUM

To summarize, an outline, or score card, by which the curriculum of any school or school system may be checked is being presented. This outline, or score card, was prepared by the Bureau of Curriculum Research of Teachers College, Columbia University, and was based on the criteria which various teachers and school officials thought a curriculum should meet. Its authors do not claim that it is perfect; on the contrary, they freely admit that it contains much material that is subjective, and which is open to question; probably the perfect score card for measuring the curriculum will never be prepared. In our estimation, however, every school system could become better acquainted with its curriculum if it checked the curriculum by means of this, or a similar, out-

line. This particular outline, which is reproduced below, is designed for checking the curriculum as a whole rather than the course of study for any subject.[1] The authors of the outline suggest that the checking be done by the use of such symbols and expressions as the following: [2]

E	Vg	G	F	P	Not in Course

A. Recognition of Basic Educational Objectives
   1. General aims or objectives:
      a. Knowledge as an end in itself (i.e., to give the child a fund of ideas).
      b. Value of knowledge found in its application (habits, skills).
      c. Development of attitudes, ideals, appreciations, etc.
   2. Statement of objectives or aims:
      a. General objectives (or aims) so stated as to indicate the broad aims and purposes of the course.
      b. Specific objectives stated indicating in some detail what the content of the course should be with reference to:
         (1) Habits.
         (2) Attitudes and appreciations.
         (3) Knowledge.
      c. Objectives stated and evidence given in selection and organization of subject matter that the objectives have been held in mind.
      d. Objectives stated but no evidence of their being carried out in the subject matter suggested.
      e. No objectives stated but the consistent selection and organization of subject matter gives evidence that the makers of the course of study had objectives in mind.
      f. Objectives neither stated nor implied.
   3. Validity (soundness, worth) of the stated and implied objectives.
      a. Objectives stated in accordance with the conception that education should be determined by children's needs, through:
         (1) Provision for spontaneous activity (i.e., the teacher following the inner urge of the children).

[1] Similar outlines for checking the courses of study for each of the several elementary-school subjects may be found on pages 24 to 112 of Florence B. Stratemeyer and H. B. Brunner's *Rating Elementary School Courses of Study.*

[2] *E* means excellent; *Vg*, very good; *G*, good; *F*, fair; and *P*, poor.

(2) Provision for directed activity (i.e., guided growth directed by the teacher based on the immediate needs of the children).

b. Objectives stated in accordance with the conception that education should be a preparation for meeting the needs of adult life, through:

(1) Development of general practical-social efficiency (habits, skills, attitudes, etc.).

(2) Development of special practical efficiencies — vocational education emphasized (habits, skills).

(3) Imparting of knowledge for the purpose of cultural development or disciplining the mind.

c. Use made of scientific studies in determination of objectives.

4. Degree in which objectives have been consistently carried out in the selection and organization of subject matter and methods suggested.

B. What to Teach — Organization of Subject Matter

1. Nature of subject matter.
   a. Relative to the needs and problems of adult life.
   b. Relative to children's needs and experiences.
   c. Irrelevant — lacking in definite purpose.
2. Major emphasis on:
   a. Habits and skills.
   b. Attitudes.
   c. Knowledge.
3. Form of development of subjects.
   a. Chiefly or entirely by correlation with other subjects.
   b. Chiefly as separate subjects with occasional correlation.
   c. Entirely as separate subjects.
   d. Subject matter arranged by topics.
   e. Subject matter arranged by projects or problems.
   f. Organization based on the use of specific textbooks.
   g. Organization independent of a basal text or texts.
   h. Sequence of subject matter within a grade determined by:
      (1) The order given in the course of study.
      (2) Circumstances of children's needs and interests (i.e., provision made for flexibility).
   i. Progression from grade to grade:
      (1) According to difficulty.
      (2) According to differences in children's needs.
      (3) By means of the same topics or activities repeated in many grades.

(4) By means of different topics or activities emphasized in each grade.

4. Use made of scientific studies in selection and organization of subject matter.

C. Recognition of, and Adaptation to, Pupil Needs
1. Effective utilization of pupil's experiences — material introduced through situations familiar to the children.
2. Course of study so organized as to provide for individual differences in children's interests and abilities.
3. Gradation of material on basis of pupils' needs for immediate use.
4. Regard for relative value of topics within a subject.
5. Suggested use of varied forms of activities, projects, etc.
6. Use made of scientific studies in provision for pupil needs.

D. Adaptation to Teacher Needs — Suggestions as to Methods and Materials
1. Respect for the judgment and initiative of the teacher with provision for flexibility of arrangement so as to give the teacher some choice as to subject matter, method, etc.
2. Suggestions for correlations between subjects.
3. Definite suggestions for work dealing with materials and topics of local interest.
4. Illustrative and type lessons given.
5. Suggested standards for checking results of teaching (i.e., standard tests, etc.).
6. Reference to proper use of maps, illustrative materials, etc.
7. Use made of scientific studies in determining methods and materials.
8. References, basic and supplemental for children's use.
   a. References to experiments, magazines, and books treating of theory and method.
   b. Subject-matter references for the teacher.

E. Course of Study Itself — Mechanical Make-Up
1. Clearness and conciseness.
2. Proper methods of emphasizing important phases of work (i.e., use of italics, form of indentation, etc., to stress important items).
3. Attractiveness, usableness — suitability of type, form. . . .
4. Convenience.
   a. Course contains an index.
   b. Course contains a table of contents.
   c. Course has definite page arrangement (i.e., pages numbered).
   d. Course includes blank pages for notations of teacher.

5. Ease of revision.
   a. Printed.
   b. Typed.
   c. Mimeographed.
   d. Written in longhand.
   e. Bound.
   f. Looseleaf binder.
   g. Single sheets.
6. Economy of space and expense.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What subjects do the laws of your state require to be taught in the elementary school and in the high school? Is the amount of time also prescribed? What are the arguments for and against such prescription?

2. What are the advantages and limitations of state courses of study? Will the present tendency toward socio-economic planning on the part of the states and the federal government result in greater or less prescription of courses of study? Explain.

3. How closely should teachers be expected to follow the official course of study? Would your views be different if teachers were better prepared? Explain.

4. What has been the effect of college-entrance requirements on the secondary school curriculum? Should the colleges have entrance requirements or should they permit the secondary schools to determine their curricula without reference to such requirements?

5. Some educators claim that an examination of the course of study gives the best single measure of the merit of a school or school system. Do you agree with this claim? Why or why not?

6. What are the relative contributions of research and philosophy to curriculum construction?

7. How would you justify to a doubting school board member the value of the so-called "fads and frills," for example, home economics, industrial arts, and gardening?

8. What objections may be made to a course of study which is based upon pages in textbooks?

9. In deciding upon what to teach how much emphasis should be placed upon *sociological* needs, and how much upon *psychological* needs?

10. Mention a few items of "deadwood" which you believe should be eliminated from the curriculum. Justify your views. What keeps this "deadwood" in the curriculum?

11. What opportunity, if any, should the elementary school pupil have to elect subjects? The junior high school pupil? The senior high school pupil? The college or university student? Explain your views.

12. Under what limitations do the small high schools operate with respect to their curricular offerings? Explain. What steps might these schools take to increase their curricular offerings?

13. The schools have been recently criticized for emphasizing too much the "bread and butter" aim of education and for neglecting the citizenship aim. Do you believe that this criticism is just? Explain. Do you agree with H. C. Morrison that public funds should not be used for providing vocational education? Why or why not?

14. Should pupils be required to salute the American flag? Why or why not? In periods of national emergency, what can the schools do to prevent the danger of fifth column activities? Have the schools a responsibility during normal times?

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Chapter XXV

ADMINISTRATION OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES AND THE CURRICULUM

Definition and scope of extracurricular activities. — Although, as we shall see later, the term applied to them is not altogether appropriate, in common parlance extracurricular activities refer to all pupil activities which are not a part of the regular studies of the school. Among the more common of these activities are athletics, debates, dramatics, clubs, and school publications. Many of the activities are as old as the school, but the term "extracurricular" is of recent coinage and usage.

During the last few decades these activities have had a phenomenal development in number and in diversity. They have had their greatest development in the college and in the secondary school; but they have also become prominent in the elementary school, especially in the upper grades. Today it is not uncommon to find several of them in even a small school. In a large school system, which has many secondary schools, hundreds of them are likely to be in operation. New ones are being added each year.

Values. — In the early days these activities were considered to be outside the realm of the curriculum, hence the name "extracurricular." In those days school officials and employees took little or no interest in such activities and in many instances condemned them as worthless and as parasites of time and energy which should be devoted to the school

subjects; and by the general public they were regarded as "boondoggling."

During recent years, however, forward-looking educators have come to see that such activities, if properly directed, have distinct educational value. Whereas they were formerly considered to be extracurricular, today they are regarded as *curricular*. They are now looked upon as an integral part of the curriculum because they are known to possess educational value, and, as was stated in the preceding chapter, any experience or activity which has educational value is really a part of the curriculum. Since these activities are in fact curricular, perhaps they should not be called extracurricular; perhaps a more appropriate name can be found for them.[1]

There is agreement among educators of today that extracurricular activities have potential value, and are worthy of a definite place in the school program. Indeed, it is agreed that, when properly directed, many of them bring greater value than some of the school subjects. They have the especial merit of arising spontaneously from the interests of the pupils; practically all pupils like to participate in them and without them in the school many pupils would quit school. Many of the school subjects, on the contrary, are formal and uninteresting, and give rise to, as Shakespeare says, "the whining schoolboy, with his satchel . . . creeping like a snail unwillingly to school." It is the obligation of the school to supervise the pupils in doing these things which they are going to do willy-nilly, and to use these interests in developing more valuable types of interests." In brief, these interests may be regarded as "springboards" from which pupils may be helped "to jump" to higher and better interests. Under proper guidance they may be integrated with and used to motivate the school subjects; moreover, they may be used to fill the gaps between subjects and to give pupils a well-rounded education.

If any extracurricular activity is to realize its potentialities,

[1] Sometimes they are called *co-curricular* or extra-class.

the purposes of the activity must be kept clearly in mind by school officials and employees and steps must be taken to accomplish them. Purposes are not likely to be achieved unless they are clearly seen and unless assiduous and intelligent efforts are made to accomplish them. Of course, these purposes must be worthy. They are worthy only when they help to meet individual and social needs. The purposes of extracurricular activities should be the same as the purposes of the other school activities; all of them must contribute to socialization, directly or indirectly. Harmless enjoyment of leisure time is not a sufficient purpose for them.

Necessity for teacher assistance. — In accordance with the increasing appreciation of the educational value of the extracurricular activities the more progressive schools and school systems of today are encouraging and supervising them; they are making them an official and an integrated part of the school program. For example, teacher sponsors are usually assigned to them and public funds are sometimes utilized for their direct support. Furthermore, in many schools and school systems a special period in the school day or school week is set aside for the activities, and credit toward graduation is frequently given pupils who engage in them.

The success of any program of extracurricular activities depends largely upon the willing and intelligent co-operation in the program of the teachers of the school. Although school officials are always responsible for the general administration and supervision of the program, they cannot be expected to give the multifarious and diverse activities the close supervision that is needed; in consequence, the responsibility for this close supervision is being delegated more and more to the teachers of the school, and the work is being regarded as a regular and important part of the teacher's duties. The typical teacher of today, especially in the secondary school, is called upon to supervise at least one extracurricular activity, and often he is called upon to supervise several of them; he should, therefore, be expected to keep this fact in mind

when he is securing his preparation for teaching. Indeed, ability and willingness to supervise one or more of these activities have almost become *sine qua nons* for securing a teaching position, and progressive teacher-preparing institutions do not neglect them in their curriculums.

PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION, AND SUPERVISION

In the preceding section of the chapter some of the chief aims and values of extracurricular activities were mentioned. In the present section some of the chief principles of organization, administration, and supervision which, if followed, will aid in realizing the desired aims and values will be discussed. Those principles follow:

1. *All extracurricular organizations and activities should be supervised by the school and should be amenable to school control and discipline.* In the first place, school supervision is recommended on the well-proved theory that it is necessary if any organization or activity is to accomplish all that it might. Of course, too much supervision is almost as bad as no supervision, because it may stifle spontaneity and make it difficult for the pupils to develop initiative, leadership, and followership. The amount of supervision to be extended will depend on several factors, such as the type and age of the organization or activity, and the maturity of the students. Thus, a greater amount of supervision will usually be needed by new organizations than by old ones; more, by athletics, dramatics, and similar activities than by chess clubs and similar organizations; and more by elementary and junior high school pupils than by senior high school pupils. In the elementary school the supervision should be of the "mother" type, whereas in the junior and senior high schools it should be of the "big-brother" or "big-sister" type. The development of the proper regard for responsibility as well as for freedom should be the aim of supervision; it should prepare for democratic living.

In the second place, school supervision is recommended

because it will protect the reputations of the organization, of the individual members of the organization, and of the school. Whenever any activity is conducted in the name of the school, or whenever any school organization holds a meeting, school officials and employees must assume a certain responsibility; this responsibility comes whether the activity or the meeting holds forth on the school premises or elsewhere. The reputations of the organization and of the school must be guarded, for, justly or unjustly, parents and the general public usually associate with the school any misconduct of the pupils, and often blame the school for such. By a strange irony, a pupil who commits a misdemeanor receives much more unfavorable publicity than an outsider receives for a similar, or even a more heinous, offense; in brief, a pupil's "sins" make big news.

2. *Before an activity is launched it should be approved by the principal or by some other official of the school.* Before a new activity is approved by school officials there should be assurance that it will meet a need of the school, that the pupils are sufficiently interested in it to support it, and that there is in the school a teacher who is qualified, has the time, and is willing to direct the activity. In employing new teachers, school officials should keep in mind the qualifications needed to direct those activities which the school operates. All coaches and other sponsors of school activities should be members of the school staff, not outsiders.

3. *Every activity should beget civic-social-moral and other worthwhile values for those participating in it.* Activities which do not have a purpose beyond the harmless enjoyment of leisure time should be reduced to a minimum, particularly in view of the fact that the realization of this purpose is usually a by-product of activities which have more worthy purposes. All school activities should help to accomplish the aims of the school.

4. *Since the principal is responsible for the administration of his school, he should have the power to veto any proposal of any school*

organization. It should not often be necessary for the principal to exercise this power, but in view of the fact that he is the head of the school he must be privileged and expected to exercise it when necessary. In matters pertaining to the welfare of his school the principal is the "God of Israel" — a court of higher authority. Of course, his decisions on any matter should be open to review by the superintendent of schools; and the decisions of the superintendent should, in turn, be open to review by the board of education.

5. *The number and the type of activities to be developed in any school should be determined by the size of the enrollment and the needs of the school.* The advantage of having a large number of activities is that students are given ample leeway for meeting their needs. The danger of having a large number of them is that the school will be "overorganized" and that the students will become mere "joiners." Between these two extremes the happy medium must be sought.

That numerous schools have too many activities there is little doubt. Several of the activities of such schools do not serve a useful purpose, and the needs of the students would be better met if the useless activities were permitted to sink into innocuous desuetude. Although overorganization is occasionally found in the large schools, it more frequently exists in the small ones, which often feel that their prestige demands that they have as many organizations and activities as the large schools. Much time, energy, and money are wasted by the small schools in attempting to ape the large ones.

6. *The introduction of a program of extracurricular activities should be gradual.* The pace of introduction should be dictated by the needs of the school and by the rapidity with which the school can establish proper supervision of the activities. Any new extracurricular activity should usually arise from a regular curricular activity of the school and be developed in close connection with it; for example, the History Club should arise from and be developed in connection with the work of the history department of the school.

7. *The number of activities in which a student is permitted to participate during a semester or a year should be limited.* A limitation on participation is recommended for two reasons: first, it will prevent the overambitious, brilliant, versatile, and popular students from overloading with activities to the possible detriment of their health and their regular studies; second, it will distribute participation in the activities among a larger number of students.

Although all authorities agree that the number of organizations and activities in which pupils are permitted to participate should be limited, there is no formula for indicating with mathematical precision where the delimiting line should be drawn. In attempting to solve this problem some schools have listed their extracurricular activities as "majors" and "minors" and have indicated the number of majors and minors which a student shall be permitted to carry during a semester or a year. Other schools have established a "point" system for regulating these matters; for example, they have rated each activity of the school according to the time and the energy that it requires, and have limited the students in the number of points which they may carry each semester or year.

8. *In order that each student shall have a well-rounded development in both the regular curricular and the extracurricular activities, the plan of educational guidance of the school should consider both types of activities in advising the pupil regarding his school program.* Such guidance is particularly helpful in the elementary and junior high schools. In a school which has a well-organized program of extracurricular activities and an efficient system of student guidance, there would be few, if any, students who would not participate in at least one extracurricular activity. The program of guidance should consider pupil needs, ever remembering that needs are often different from interests.

9. *Since it is desired that as many students as possible shall participate in each activity, there should be democracy in the activity.* Democracy can be secured by making participation in each

activity equally open to all pupils. This would not, of course, be interpreted to preclude the organization of separate activities for boys and girls, nor the establishing of reasonable standards of achievement for eligibility to participate in certain activities. The principle of democracy is violated when elementary or secondary school fraternities, sororities, or other secret organizations are permitted to exist. Whatever may be their merits in colleges and universities, school officials and employees are agreed that secret organizations should not be permitted in the elementary and secondary schools. Most states either have state laws or rules of the state department of education prohibiting secret organizations in the elementary and secondary schools; it is unfortunate that many school officials and employees callously neglect to enforce these laws.

10. *Only active members of the school, that is, students and school employees, should be permitted to enroll as members of school organizations.* Since they are not amenable to school control and discipline, outside members frequently cause trouble for both the organization and the school. Pupils, therefore, who have severed their connection with the school should not be permitted to be members of extracurricular organizations.

11. *Whenever possible, the school buildings should be the place of meeting for all school functions.* Functions which are not held on the school premises are more difficult to supervise. Whether they are held on school premises or not, the place of meeting of all school functions should be approved by the school. Many of the more progressive schools now provide club and game rooms for their students.

12. *In order to avoid conflicts in dates and to secure better administration in general, the meetings of all activities should be definitely scheduled.* Many schools have found it desirable to devote a certain period of the school day to such activities. For most activities, day meetings are preferable to evening ones. If evening meetings are necessary, they should generally be held on an evening that is not followed by a school day.

13. *To secure wide participation by the students and at a small*

cost to them, the expense incident to all activities should be kept as low as possible. Students who are financially unable to participate in such activities should be given work sufficient to enable them to earn their fees, or should be provided with free or reduced admission. Students should be helped to satisfy all legitimate needs, but they should not be pauperized.

14. *There should be close supervision by the school of all extracurricular funds and accounts.* This principle is discussed at length in the next section of the chapter.

FINANCES AND BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

School supervision. — Most extracurricular organizations and activities receive and spend revenue. The amount of money which they annually take in and pay out varies from a few dollars in the small schools to several thousand dollars in the large schools. In most schools, athletic events are by far the chief source of revenue. Whether the amount of money be large or small, the school must exercise supervision of it. No school organization can justly claim that, since it has earned its own money, it should be permitted to expend it in any manner that it chooses.

School supervision of the finances of all extracurricular activities is recommended for two reasons. In the first place, supervision begets a more economical expenditure of the funds. Under complete student control, there is the ever-lurking danger that the funds will be unintentionally wasted. To permit the waste of funds is not fair to the large group which furnishes the funds, nor does waste inculcate good habits in the students responsible for it. In the second place, supervision guarantees the financial integrity and protects the reputation of those persons who handle the funds. Without a proper system of audits and of public reports of funds, defalcation on the part of persons who keep the funds is risked, and what is more to be deplored, the reputations of honest persons are likely to be besmirched by scandalmongers. Even teachers and school officials, who often find it necessary

to assume control of these funds, must take heed lest "whispering campaigns" be launched against their financial integrity. All accounts should be so kept that no one, at any time or at any place, could legitimately question the fidelity to their trust of the persons who keep them.

It is a good plan to have the financial affairs of the extracurricular activities of the school directed by a committee composed of both student and faculty members. Under ideal conditions this committee would represent the financial affairs of *all* extracurricular organizations and activities of the school and not merely the affairs of one or a few. Such a committee is particularly advisable in schools which have centralized financing of all activities. Its general functions are: to prepare budgets for the activities, or to assist in preparing them; to assist in securing ample revenue for each activity; to aid in securing an economical expenditure of all revenue; and, in general, to serve as a clearinghouse for all financial phases of the extracurricular activities.

Centralized accounting. — The centralized plan of controlling the finances of all extracurricular activities is fortunately coming more and more into use. According to this plan, the control of all funds is centered in a school treasurer. The treasurer may be a teacher, the principal's clerk, or some other member of the school staff. In the small schools only a few minutes of the school treasurer's time will be required each day or each week for this work. In the large schools the work of the school treasurer is often sufficient to require a special employee for its performance; in fact, many of the larger high schools are now employing a full-time treasurer for the work.

The treasurer controls all extracurricular funds. He keeps the financial records; receives all moneys collected by any organization or activity of the school; draws all checks; and at regular intervals makes reports of the financial status of each organization. His accounts should be regularly audited and always be open to inspection by any interested person.

Teachers of the commercial department or, if there is no commercial department, teachers of other departments usually make acceptable auditors. There are obvious advantages, however, in having occasional audits by commercial firms. The school paper is a desirable publicity medium for the reports of the auditing committees. The reports should also be posted on the bulletin board of the school.

The limits set for this chapter do not permit a showing of samples of financial ledgers and other necessary forms for administering the finances of the extracurricular activities. Fortunately, though, such samples are readily available elsewhere to the interested reader.[1] Suffice it to say here that the treasurer must keep two accounts. The first of these is the *general account* showing the itemized receipts and expenditures, and the bank balance day by day. The second is an *account for each activity* and shows the itemized receipts and expenditures, and the bank balance day by day for each activity; there will be, of course, as many activity accounts as there are activities in the school. Regarding the accounting forms, six are indispensable: (1) central treasurer's receipt; (2) pay order; (3) treasurer's check; (4) requisition for services or materials; (5) ticket receipt; and (6) report of ticket sales. Herewith a former school principal briefly describes how he organized the accounting procedure for the extracurricular activities of his school: [2]

> Three books are kept, a cash or day book, a journal, and a ledger. Every day funds accumulating are deposited in the office by the representative of the activity involved, and are credited by the clerk, and a receipt issued to the depositor. The entries are made in the various books according to ordinary double-entry methods. Bank deposits are made every day to the credit of the general school account, as in any ordinary business. Once a month the books are audited by a committee of commercial teachers appointed by the principal for the purpose.

[1] For excellent samples of ledger pages and forms see almost any of the Selected References at the close of this chapter.

[2] R. H. Jordan, *Extraclassroom Activities in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, pp. 227–228. Copyright by The Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

The books are open at any time for the inspection of any teacher or pupil.

All bills are paid by check on presentation of properly vouchered statements. The statements must be accompanied by a copy of the original purchasing order, signed by both the faculty and student managers of the activity in question; the statement must also be approved for payment by the same officers, after which a check is drawn, signed by the faculty treasurer, and countersigned by a faculty member who acts as comptroller.

. . . No check can be cashed without the double signature, thus protecting the treasurer against suspicion of withdrawing cash for his own use. The faculty manager or sponsor of each activity is entrusted with the duty of checking the original sources of revenue, looking after the sale of tickets, collections of subscriptions and dues; and for each of the various activities a series of checks is arranged to safeguard these sources of revenue against misappropriation.

In addition to the above accounts, there should be adequate records of all extracurricular equipment. Such records are particularly necessary when the school engages in athletics, as practically all high schools do. The records should provide for each item such information as its cost, its location at any time, and its condition. Provision should also be made for the cleaning, the repair, the storage, and the safe keeping of all equipment.

Protection of school athletes. — In the whole United States thousands of school athletes are injured annually, and every athletic activity has its quota of injuries, though certain activities have many more injuries than others. On the basis of number of participants, football causes more injuries than any other sport; in fact, many school systems, especially the smaller ones, have abolished it because of its hazards.

Schools engaging in athletic activities, particularly the more dangerous ones, such as football, should take every reasonable precaution against injuries to the participants. Every student who expects to engage in an unduly strenuous or dangerous sport should be required to present a physician's certificate indicating physical competence; in the case of such a sport every participant should also be required to

present the written permission of his parents or guardian. Students should not be permitted to engage in athletic activities for which they are not properly equipped against reasonable hazards. Small schools are frequently unable to equip a football squad and in such instances they should refuse to engage in this sport.

In spite of all reasonable precautions, students are frequently injured in athletic competition and expense for medical attention falls upon someone. In most schools this expense must still be borne entirely by the injured student or his family, and often this means a severe hardship. During recent years, however, many schools have carried group insurance against such accidents, and the tendency is properly toward every school carrying such protection. In many states the state and sectional athletic associations successfully sponsor such insurance. In school systems having several hundred athletes, and large athletic funds, local insurance plans may be readily organized and financed.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Many people claim that the extracurricular activities are receiving too much attention and that the curricular activities are being neglected. Do you agree with that point of view? Why or why not?

2. Is there too much of a tendency to neglect extracurricular activities of an intellectual type and to emphasize those of a physical type? Explain.

3. What further principles of organization, administration, and supervision of extracurricular activities can you mention which are not mentioned in this chapter? To which, if any, of the principles mentioned do you object, and why?

4. Should athletic teams have paid coaches? Should they be paid more than other teachers? Why or why not? Should the athletic coach be required to sit on the side lines during games and permit the team to run itself? Why or why not?

5. Do you favor sectional and state athletic contests? Why or why not?

6. What provisions, if any, should schools make for the care of their injured athletes? Should they carry insurance against injuries? Explain.

7. Should public funds be used to help finance extracurricular activities? Why or why not? Is such expenditure legal in your state?

8. Should the board of education adopt rules and regulations governing the finances of extracurricular activities? Explain your views.

9. Do you agree with the recommendation that the financial affairs of all extracurricular activities of the school should be directed by one committee? Why or why not?

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Chapter XXVI

ADMINISTRATION OF TEXTBOOKS [1]

IMPORTANCE OF TEXTBOOKS

Emphasis upon the textbook. — Although better methods are readily available, the typical teacher of the United States still follows the textbook closely and almost exclusively. Probably because of the larger amount of professional preparation which he has had, the typical teacher of most European countries uses primarily the lecture method, and places small emphasis on the textbook. In the schools of the United States the textbook frequently determines what is taught and the order of presentation of the subject matter; it is the course of study for the subject. Many teachers begin on page one of the textbook and make their assignments in the order in which the material appears in the book; they infrequently add or omit any material. Moreover, during the recitation, the pupils are questioned upon, and are expected to know, what the textbook says about this matter or that; in other words, they are expected to "recite" the material of the textbook. Often, therefore, the American teacher is merely a taskmaker who assigns a certain number of pages in the textbook and at the next class meeting ascertains how well the pupils have learned the contents of those pages; these practices are followed particularly by the inexperienced and the

[1] Most of the discussion of textbooks is also applicable to work books, which have had a large development during recent years. In practically every school subject several workbooks are now available to supplement textbooks and, sometimes, to supplant them.

inadequately prepared teacher. What the textbook says is usually accepted as law and gospel by teachers, parents, and pupils. In brief, the textbook in the American schools is, and always has been, regarded as a sort of "educational Bible," to be devoutly followed. This is a description of what is and has been, not of what ought to be.

Many teachers "ride" textbooks so strenuously that they proscribe thinking and fail to give the pupils any material not contained in the textbooks; such practices are to be condemned. However, the intelligent use of the textbook has certain advantages. In the first place, the emphasis on the textbook has helped to make the American people the most avid readers in the world in spite of the fact that it has given many people the belief that from three to six months are required to read through a book. In no other country are so many books, bulletins, magazines, newspapers, and other types of reading material published; and in no other country is such material devoured so avidly. Reading has long been for the American people the greatest intellectualizing agency. The textbook prepares the pupil to read, and if properly used, prepares him to do independent thinking. With his use of textbooks the pupil in the American schools is less dependent on the teacher for his information than is the pupil in the European schools. Moreover, the use of a textbook permits the pupil to read his lessons again for securing details or for review purposes; this repetition of experience is, of course, impossible with the lecture method.

In the second place, the textbook — assuming that it is meritorious — contains the most pertinent information available on the subject; moreover, it usually has an excellent organization of that information; still more, it is provocative, and shows the reader how further information may be secured on the subject. The author of the textbook has probably spent several months — possibly several years — in selecting, organizing, and presenting his material. In the few minutes which he has available for preparing for a class meeting, the

teacher cannot select and organize his material as effectively as has the author of the textbook.

From the second advantage flows a third advantage, namely, the textbook is a great timesaver for both the pupil and the teacher. As was remarked above, an excellent textbook contains, for the grade or grades for which it has been written, the most pertinent information on the subject, and thousands of hours of time of the pupils and teachers would be spent if they had to go to reference books and other sources and to select and organize such information for themselves.

It should be remembered, though, that even the best textbook is likely to possess the limitations of presenting too much or too little material, of being colored too much with the author's views to the neglect of other views, of being out of step with recent social changes, and of lacking adaptation to the needs of the individual pupil. The textbook should not determine the course of study; rather the needs of the pupil should determine it. The teacher should, therefore, be encouraged, helped, and expected to supplement the material of the textbook with material found in other textbooks, in reference books, in workbooks, in magazines, in other courses of study, in the cinema, on the radio, in museums, in the life of the community, and in other sources. He should not torture the subject by dissecting every word of the textbook. The textbook should not be "king" over all other sources but should be "brother" to them. The more discerning the teacher the more will he be able to make use of these other sources, thus minimizing the importance of the textbook as an "educational Bible." The textbook should be made a helpful servant. It should not be permitted to become the master of teacher and pupils.

Quality of American textbooks. — The emphasis on the textbook method of teaching, and the large textbook business which has developed in consequence, have been instrumental in securing for the schools of the United States the best

textbooks in the world. Their excellence is partly attested by the fact that they are sold all over the world, and particularly where English is the vernacular. The textbooks of no other country compare with ours in excellence of subject matter, illustrations, typography, binding, paper, and other phases of textbook making. Dozens of publishing houses

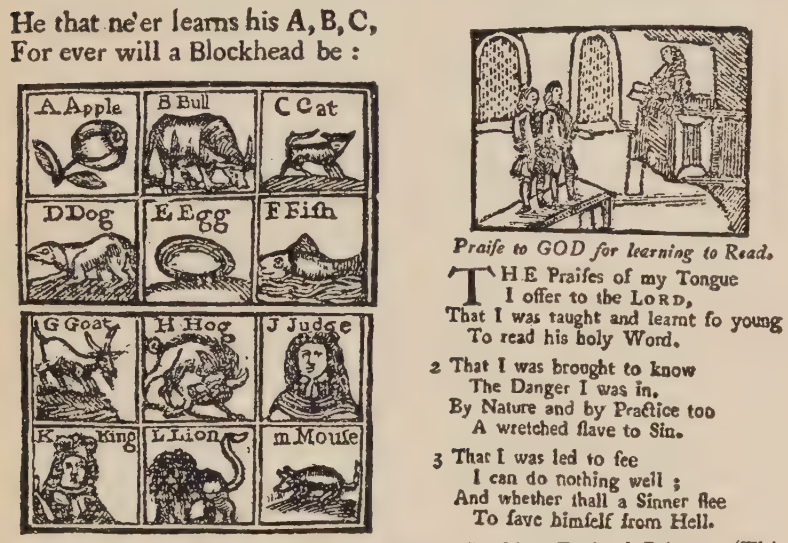


FIG. 56. — Two Specimen Pages from *The New England Primer*. (This was the first textbook written and published in America. It was authored by Benjamin Harris of Boston and was first printed in 1690. It had a huge sale both in the American colonies and in England.)

have been organized to edit, print, and distribute these textbooks. Competition among publishers has always been keen, and as "competition is the life of trade," so it has been a mighty stimulus to the textbook business. Each firm feels the urge of publishing the best textbooks possible; indeed, it *must* publish excellent textbooks if it expects to compete successfully with its alert rivals.

In most of the school subjects, several textbooks are available. For example, in such subjects as spelling, reading, arithmetic, history, and geography, there are available a

dozen or more textbooks, all of which have been published within recent years. Not all these books, however, are the best, as a casual examination of them will make evident. One of the most valuable experiences which a person can have in making himself acquainted with textbooks is to compare several textbooks for a certain subject and grade. Many such comparisons have been made during recent years, and all have shown wide differences in the various features of the textbook, particularly in the *content* of the books.

Since the textbook is the usual method of teaching in American schools, and since what the pupil learns at school is often almost entirely limited to what his textbooks contain, it is necessary that the best available ones be selected. In view of the fact, however, that there are many textbooks on the market, and since all books do not possess the same merit, it is incumbent upon those persons who have the task of selecting textbooks to use fine discrimination. It is necessary for them to have desirable standards; in later paragraphs of this chapter such standards will be discussed.

Cost of textbooks. — Since the advent of the first textbooks there has been much discussion, and a large amount of adverse criticism, of their cost. Much of this discussion and criticism has been based upon erroneous information, or upon no information, and a large amount of it has been engaged in by rabble-rousing politicians and other mountebanks.[1] When it is considered that textbooks determine largely what is taught, and when it is known that less than 2 per cent of the expenditures for education goes for textbooks, it cannot be justly claimed that the expenditures for textbooks are exorbitant. No other type of reading material, which does not carry advertising, is sold as cheaply as textbooks.

In an attempt to reduce the cost of textbooks several states

[1] Not infrequently someone will propose a plan for saving a state "several millions of dollars" annually in its textbook bill, but not knowing that the total amount expended for textbooks in the state is less than one million dollars annually.

have considered state publication of textbooks, but all of them, with the exception of California and Kansas, have decided against the plan. In those two states the evidence indicates that state-published textbooks are more expensive and poorer in quality than those purchased in the open market from private publishers.[1] School officials and employees are almost unanimously opposed to state publication of textbooks because they fear political or other insidious domination of the plan, with the result that inferior books will be foisted upon the whole state.

FREE VERSUS PUPIL-OWNED TEXTBOOKS

Tendency toward free textbooks. — Beginning in Philadelphia in 1818, the practice of providing free textbooks for all public school children soon spread to other school systems, especially in the East. The first state to enact a free-textbook law was Massachusetts in 1884. At present, approximately two-thirds of the states *require* free textbooks, and all the remaining states *permit* boards of education to provide them. Most states and local communities have wisely decided that, when free textbooks cannot be provided for the pupils of both elementary and secondary schools, the pupils of the elementary school should have the first opportunity at such advantages.

Most teachers and school officials in school systems which have tried free textbooks ardently favor the plan. The usual arguments which are advanced in favor of free textbooks are as follows:

1. All children are placed on the same plane. Under the free-textbook plan, no child is embarrassed because he must go without textbooks. The schools furnish free teachers, free buildings, free equipment, and free everything else; therefore, why not free textbooks!

2. The cost is less, because under normal conditions a book will last from three to five years. Moreover, the trouble with a portion of the public over the cost of textbooks disappears.

[1] For evidence, see Percy R. Davis, *State Publication of Textbooks in California*, p. 83.

3. Uniformity of textbooks in each school-administrative unit is more easily procured under the free-textbook plan than under the pupil-owned textbook plan.

4. Under the plan, textbooks may be more easily changed when the need for changing them is demonstrated.

5. On the first day of school each pupil is provided with his textbooks and is ready to begin work immediately and on equal terms with his fellows. Under the pian which requires each pupil to purchase his own textbooks, there are many delays in securing the books. Such delay is very inconvenient to both pupil and teacher.

The usual arguments which are advanced in favor of pupil-owned, and against public-owned, textbooks are the following:

1. The cost of providing free textbooks is too large a strain for the public to bear. It is argued that only so much money can be spent for education and it must be spent for the most important things. Textbooks, it is said, are items which can, and should, be furnished by the pupils.

2. Pupil-owned textbooks make pupils more appreciative of the advantages of education. Doing too much for the pupil, it is argued, will tend to make him expect too much from society and will tend to pauperize him.

3. Free textbooks are likely to be unhygienic since they are used by all classes of children, dirty and clean alike. Moreover, the danger of the spread of disease is inherent in the plan. These arguments would apply, of course, only to used books; they would not apply to new ones.

4. The custodial care of free textbooks places an extra burden upon school officials and employees and such burden should be avoided.

5. Free textbooks do not encourage the pupils to build up home libraries. Moreover, pupils do not have access to the free textbooks during the summer vacation.

6. It is argued finally that under the free-textbook plan, pupils do not take as good care of the books as they do of their own. Such lack of care involves a large and an unnecessary waste to the public, and teaches disrespect for property.

School systems which do not provide free textbooks for all pupils must make provision for their sale or rental. Such provision may be made (1) by the board of education establishing bookstores, especially in the larger school buildings, or (2) by arranging with private bookstores, drugstores, or

similar establishments to sell them on a commission basis. Most school officials use and favor the latter plan because of its greater ease of administration and of its being cheaper.

Rental of textbooks. — A few school systems purchase textbooks and rent them to pupils who desire to rent rather than to purchase. The plan is used more frequently in the secondary than in the elementary schools. Under it the life of the textbook is estimated, and sufficient rental is charged each year to pay for the book during its estimated life. With most books a life of four years may usually be safely estimated. Since the book is new and more serviceable, a larger rental should be charged during the first years than during the later ones. In the case of a book having an estimated life of four years, the rental for each year might be set at the following percentages of the original cost of the book: first year, 35 per cent; second year, 30 per cent; third year, 25 per cent; and fourth year, 20 per cent. The 10 per cent leeway in the calculations would be used to cover the cost of repairing the book and for other expenses.

Textbooks for indigent pupils. — States which do not require boards of education to provide free textbooks for all pupils usually require them to provide indigent pupils with such materials. The laws usually stipulate also that clothing shall be provided to such pupils. These practices are another application of the educational creed of America that no pupil shall suffer educational handicap because of poverty. When public funds are not available for such materials, they may usually be secured through private welfare organizations or through public-spirited citizens of the community; making provision for such cases has become one of the chief accomplishments of parent-teacher associations, mothers' clubs, and similar organizations.

Care of textbooks. — The life of a textbook, as with everything, is determined largely by the care with which the book is used. Teachers can assist in prolonging the life of textbooks by giving the pupils proper instructions on their use and care

and by seeing that these instructions are followed. Special precautions should be taken against pupils losing their textbooks and against depreciating their value through unnecessary marking, tearing, soiling, or similar depredations.

The precautions just mentioned should especially be taken in school systems which provide free textbooks. In such systems a definite record of the location of every textbook should be kept, and provision should be made for the repair of damaged books when the cost of such repairs is justified. Many of the larger school systems maintain their own book-repair departments on an economical basis. Most systems, though, find it more economical to have the repairs made by a commercial bindery.

UNIFORMITY AND TERM OF ADOPTION

Uniformity of textbooks. — The laws of approximately one-half the states provide for state uniformity of textbooks, particularly in the elementary schools; state uniformity is seldom required in the secondary schools. The tendency in both theory and practice is toward local adoption. Local adoption is favored by practically all teachers, school officials, and publishing companies; however, state adoption is favored by a large portion of the general public.

The arguments usually advanced in favor of textbook uniformity are as follows:

1. Uniformity is advantageous to the pupil who moves from one school district to another. With the same textbooks in use in the new school as in the old, the pupil is not so likely to lose time in making the transfer. Moreover, he does not have the expense of purchasing another textbook.

2. Uniformity is advantageous to the teacher who transfers from one school district to another, because he does not have to spend time in becoming acquainted with a new set of textbooks.

3. Uniformity makes it possible to procure textbooks at a lower price. If a publisher secures a county or a state adoption for a period of two, three, five, or eight years, he is enabled to manufacture and to distribute in quantities; thus he can effect economies.

4. It is argued also, though the thesis is strongly attacked, that uniform selection begets better books than non-uniform selection. It is affirmed that county or state textbook commissions, which have been established for selecting textbooks, are more competent to perform this service, and have more time to devote to the service, than local school officials.

5. Uniformity gives greater assurance that the minimum essentials of the course of study will be taught.

The chief arguments advanced against uniformity of textbooks, particularly against state uniformity, are the following:

1. State uniformity — and often county uniformity — does not permit teachers to use the books which are best adapted to local needs. The educational needs of the various communities are not always the same. In fact, even in the same school system the educational needs of the pupils in one school will vary somewhat — perhaps widely — from the needs of the pupils in another school. A textbook which may be adapted to the needs of one school may be "poison rather than meat" for another school.

2. It is argued finally against uniform selection, particularly against state uniformity, that the adopting authorities are not always competent to perform this function. Frequently members of state boards are "politically" appointed, "politically" minded, and are susceptible to "pull" and other unethical practices. Often the members of the adopting agencies are not engaged in schoolwork, and if they are thus engaged the work is far removed from the pupils. Infrequently is a teacher — the person who must use the textbook, and consequently the person most vitally concerned with procuring the proper textbook — a member of the adopting agency.

Term of selection. — School textbooks are now adopted for terms extending from three to ten years. In most states the term of selection is set by statute, and the term most frequently used is five years. Most states do not make any provision for changing a textbook before the period of adoption is concluded, even though the book is found to be entirely unsatisfactory. This inability to change an unsatisfactory book is to be regretted; however, the rule places a responsibility upon adopting authorities to use finer discrimination than ever in selecting the best book available. The conse-

quence of selecting a poor textbook cannot be other than long suffering for the pupils and ceaseless annoyance for teachers.

STANDARDS FOR SELECTION

Importance of exercising care. — In previous paragraphs the importance of selecting the best textbooks, and some of the difficulties of choosing the best ones, have been pointed out. From what has been said it becomes manifest that only those persons who are familiar with the characteristics of good textbooks, and who know the best theory and practice in education, are competent to select such tools. Good textbooks cannot be selected by "eeny-meeny-miney-mo" methods. Above all, they cannot be selected by laymen, such as school board members. Under an ideal plan, before textbooks are adopted, they should be tried out in the classroom. Just as "the proof of the pudding is in the eating," so the final test of the merit of a textbook is how well it meets the needs of the pupils for whom it has been designed. Textbooks are selected to facilitate instruction, and meeting this criterion should be the final basis for judging them.

Textbook committees. — Any school system which has the privilege of selecting its own textbooks — and such privilege should be given to every school system — should organize committees for this important work. The members of these committees should be appointed by the superintendent of schools and should be representative of the teachers, principals, supervisors, and any other groups which will use the books. These committees should make their book recommendations to the superintendent of schools, and he in turn should make his recommendations to the board of education. If the superintendent makes a recommendation which disagrees with that of a committee he should state his reasons for such disagreement. The board of education should make the formal adoption, but it should not adopt any book which does not meet the approval of the superintendent and the

committee which has been appointed to study the various books available.

All publishers should be notified of the plan to be followed in the examination and selection, and it goes without saying that merit and prices of books should be the sole determining factors in the selection. Any publisher who does not compete on a strictly ethical basis should be immediately eliminated from the competition. Political chicanery, pull, and similar practices should not have any place in school procedures; they are sure to harm the schools and to place under a cloud of suspicion all persons who attempt them.

Practically all publishers are willing to provide for each member of a textbook committee a sample copy of each book being considered for adoption. School officials and employees should see that this splendid gesture of publishers is not abused. They should not request more sample copies than are needed; they should not build up their personal libraries through a begging racket; they should not sell sample copies. They should be reminded that intelligent and ethical publishers soon discover any textbook racketeers in the teaching profession and forever disdain them.

The use of score cards. — Persons who have the responsibility of selecting textbooks would do well to design a score card for each of the various subjects for which textbooks are to be adopted. The use of a score card makes it less likely that those persons who have the task of selecting the textbook will forget the criteria which textbooks for that subject should meet. Moreover, the various items in the score card are weighted, thus obviating the tendency on the part of many judges to overemphasize certain items and to neglect other items. Although the score-card method is not entirely objective, its use places textbook selection on a more scientific basis than occurs when a score card is not used. In Fig. 57 is shown a score card designed for textbooks in general.[1]

[1] E. M. Otis, "A Textbook Score Card," *Journal of Educational Research* (February, 1923), Vol. VII, pp. 133–134.

1. *Local Adaptability*		110
A. Supervision	(20)	
B. Teaching	(25)	
C. Children	(30)	
D. Class	(10)	
E. Equipment	(20)	
F. Term	(5)	
2. *Subject Matter*		400
A. Child Experience	(65)	
B. Aims	(50)	
C. Individual Differences	(45)	
D. Selection and Balance	(100)	
E. Moral-Civic Values	(65)	
F. Reliability	(35)	
G. Style	(40)	
3. *Arrangement and Organization*		120
A. Divisions	(40)	
B. Project Method	(80)	
4. *Aids to Instruction and Study*		170
A. Usableness	(90)	
B. Provision for Choice	(50)	
C. Index	(10)	
D. Glossary	(10)	
E. Contents (table)	(10)	
5. *Mechanical Features*		150
A. Attractiveness	(25)	
B. Illustrations	(45)	
C. Print	(30)	
D. Binding	(25)	
E. Paper	(25)	
6. *Special Features*		50
A. Authorship	(30)	
B. Publisher	(5)	
C. Preface	(5)	
D. Publication Date	(10)	
Total		1000

FIG. 57. — A General Score Card for Judging the Merit of Textbooks. (See the following pages for explanations of the items of this score card.)

Its author well says that the score card has been designed primarily for *informational* books, and that such books as histories, geographies, readers, and science textbooks can easily be scored by it. On the other hand, he says that some of the items do not apply to language texts, spellers, and arithmetics. It will be observed that the score card has weighted the values which should be given to the particular items.

In using a score card, the members of the textbook committee will desire an explanation of most, if not all, the items comprising the score card. Since the score card will probably be used by several persons, it is necessary that all persons have similar interpretation of the meanings of the various items. Realizing this fact, Otis has briefly defined and explained the items which appear in this score card.[1] His definitions and explanations follow:

STANDARDS FOR SCORING TEXTBOOKS

1. Local Adaptability. Is the book suited to the locality?
   - A. *Supervision.* — Adapted to the type of supervision. Should be self-directive. Requires minimum of attention on the part of the supervisor. Suited to the course of study likely to be used for a considerable period.
   - B. *Teaching.* — Suited to various types of instruction. Gives special aid to inexperienced teachers. Adaptable to conservative teachers using formal recitation. Enables progressive teachers to use initiative.
   - C. *Children.* — Adapted to needs and ability of children. Should relate community activities to school work. Should have material for both sexes.
   - D. *Class.* — Suited to size of class, whether large or small. Meets needs of group of poorly classified pupils.
   - E. *Equipment.* — Meets restrictions of a modestly equipped laboratory, a small library, and a minimum of supplies.
   - F. *Term.* — Essential material for a short term with extra topics for a longer term.
2. Subject Matter. What is the character of it?
   - A. *Child Experience, Related to.* — Interests the child. Builds on original tendencies. Recognizes play instinct. Provides for dramatization. Allows growth in subject and in life.

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 134–136.

B. *Aims.* — Meets local requirements. Is in harmony with accepted general aims. May be adapted to laboratory, library, or recitation methods.

C. *Individual Differences, Provides for.* — Offers material for slow, gifted, and normal pupils. Sufficient breadth to appeal to literary, scientific, linguistic, or historical tastes.

D. *Selection and Balance.* — Are they recognized: (1) in amount given to a topic, (2) in selection of essential topics, (3) in repetition of vital facts when needed, and (4) in elimination of unnecessary repeating especially in series of books? Less important topics in different type.

E. *Moral-Civic Values.* — Suggests ideals of conduct and action. Has civic and moral motive. Does not encourage prejudice. Teaches suspension of judgment. Promotes loyalty and Americanism.

F. *Reliability.* — Facts accurate and up-to-date. Material from authentic sources.

G. *Style.* — Language and diction suitable for grade or class. Simple in earlier years, gradually increasing in sentence and word difficulty. Emphasizes short sentence. Language figurative and vivid where possible.

3. Arrangement and Organization.

A. *Divisions.* — Divided carefully into chapters, sections, and paragraphs, each attractively set off in bold-faced type, larger letters, or special print groupings. Divisions characterized by unity and continuity. Lessons have aims that are clear and definite.

B. *Project Method.* — Adapted to this method. Material topically grouped. Easily correlated with other branches. Provides for unit studies. Applications suggested or presented and carefully distributed through text.

4. Aids to Instruction and Study.

A. *Usableness.* — Questions throught provoking and relevant. Suggested methods of study. References well selected and annotated. Exercises useful and bearing on text. All planned with a view to purposeful activity.

B. *Provision for Choice.* — Sufficient number. Variation in difficulty and interest.

C. *Index.* — There should be an adequate index, and where possible a list of difficult pronunciations, or words, parenthetically pronounced.

D. *Glossary.*

E. *Contents.* — Table of contents compıete enough to permit ready location of important topics.

5. Mechanical Features.
   A. *Attractiveness.* — Color suitable, not easily soiled. Design harmonious. Size convenient.
   B. *Illustrations.* — Adequate in number, useful, appealing to pupil, full of action when possible, well-executed, explanation in detail.
   C. *Print.* — Proper size for grade. Height at least 1.5 mm., thickness 0.25–0.3 mm.; between letters 0.5–0.75 mm.; within letters 0.3–0.5 mm.; between words 2 mm.; between lines 2.5 mm.
   D. *Binding.* — Durable and flexible, not easily broken.
   E. *Paper.* — Good weight, good quality, surface unglazed.
6. Special Features.
   A. *Authorship.* — Author prominent as educator, authority on subject.
   B. *Publisher.* — Reliable, of good standing and reputation.
   C. *Preface.* — Serves real use. Gives general plan of book.
   D. *Date of publication.* — Revised or produced in the last five years.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How are textbooks in your state adopted?

2. Should the unit for the adoption of textbooks be the state, the county, the local school system, or the individual school? Explain.

3. Would you favor state publication of textbooks? Why or why not?

4. What are the advantages of using score cards in the examination of textbooks? If score cards are not available, now might they be formulated?

5. What provisions may school officials of your state make regarding furnishing textbooks and school supplies to indigent children?

6. What supplies other than textbooks do you think the public should furnish free to pupils? Explain.

7. To what extent should school officials and employees make themselves accessible to the representatives of textbook publishing houses? Explain.

8. Should a textbook written by an employee of the local school system be adopted for use in the local system? Explain.

9. Should teachers or school officials request sample copies of textbooks? What disposition should be made of these sample copies?

10. One often hears gossip to the effect that school official so-and-so is controlled by a certain textbook firm. Can school officials do anything to avoid these charges and suspicions? Explain.

11. Are the secondary school pupils as much entitled to free textbooks as the elementary school pupils? Why or why not?

12. What steps should teachers and school officials take to secure a careful use of free textbooks?

13. In a school system which provides free textbooks what provision, if any, should be made for the repair of the books?

14. When textbooks are not free, should they be sold to the pupils by the board of education or by the merchants of the community? Explain.

15. Outline a plan whereby free textbooks may be properly accounted for.

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Otis, E. M. "A Textbook Score Card," *Journal of Educational Research* (February, 1923), Vol. VII, pp. 132–136. The author made a score card by which textbooks could be judged upon six different bases; this score card is reproduced as Fig. 57 of the present book.

Tidwell, C. J. *State Control of Textbooks with Special Reference to Florida.* Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 78 pp. A report of the legal tendencies regarding control of textbooks.

"The Textbook in American Education," *Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* (Part II). Public School Publishing Company, 1931. 364 pp. Probably the most complete single reference on the subject of textbooks; contains a complete bibliography.

Chapter XXVII

ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES

IMPORTANCE OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

Evolution of the school-library movement. — Concepts of the place of the library in the school program have passed, or are passing, through three stages of development. In the first stage no school libraries are provided and the instruction given the pupil is limited to the material contained in the textbook. It is an unfortunate commentary that many schools, especially the smaller and impoverished ones, have not yet progressed beyond this stage.

The second stage is reached when small collections of books and other reading materials are placed in the classrooms. In this stage, however, in spite of the availability of other reading materials, the textbook is still "worshiped" and little attempt is made by teachers to encourage the pupils to use the other reading materials. Many schools have not progressed further than this stage, in which the library is looked upon as an ornament. In this stage the library is regarded as a mere collection of books and the attitude toward it is not of a much higher order than that expressed in the *Old Librarian's Almanac*, which says:

> Keep your Books behind stout Gratings and in no wise let any Person come at them to take them from the Shelf except yourself. Have in Mind the Counsel of Master Enoch Sneed (that most Worthy Librarian) who says: "It were better that no Person enter the Library (save the Librarian Himself) and that the Books be kept in Safety, than that one Book be lost, or others Misplaced." Guard well your Books — this is

always your foremost Duty. . . . So far as your Authority will permit of it, exercise great Discrimination as to which Persons shall be admitted to the use of the Library. For the Treasure House of Literature is no more to be thrown open to the Ravages of the unreasoning Mob, than is a fair Garden to be laid unprotected at the Mercy of a Swarm of Beasts.

In the third stage of development the library is regarded as, next to the teacher, the most important feature of the school. In this stage the library is looked upon as more than a mere collection of books housed in the classroom and is regarded as more than an ornamentation. It becomes the "intellectual laboratory" of the school and is used constantly. In the larger schools at least, a separate room is set aside for the library, the library is well equipped, and a qualified librarian is employed to extend its use. Moreover, the teachers increasingly appreciate the fact that textbooks are not "educational Bibles" to be used alone, but that to realize their greatest value they must be supplemented by other reading materials. That these views are usually held today is shown by the fact that practically all states have enacted laws which permit, or require, local boards of education to establish school libraries. Thousands of schools have brought their libraries to the third stage of development and it is the inevitable goal toward which all schools worthy of the name are striving. In this stage, the following objectives of the school library, which have been formulated by the American Library Association, are kept in mind and attained as soon as possible:

1. All pupils in both elementary and secondary schools should have ready access to books to the end that they may be trained:
   a. To love to read that which is worthwhile.
   b. To supplement their school studies by the use of books other than textbooks.
   c. To use reference books easily and effectively.
   d. To use intelligently both the school library and public library.
2. Every secondary school should have a trained librarian, and every elementary school should have trained library service.
3. Trained librarians should have the same status as teachers or heads of departments of equal training and experience.

4. Every school that provides training for teachers should require a course in the use of books and libraries, and a course on best literature for children.

5. Every state should provide for the supervision of school libraries and for the certification of school librarians.

6. The public library should be recognized as a necessary part of public instruction, and should be as liberally supported by tax as are public schools, and for the same reason.

7. The school system that does not make liberal provisions for training in the use of libraries fails to do its full duty in the way of revealing to all future citizens the opportunity to know and to use the resources of the public library as a means of education.

TYPES OF SCHOOL-LIBRARY CONTROL AND ADMINISTRATION

Three types of school-library control and administration are in use today: *public-library* control, *joint* control, and *school* control. These will be briefly discussed herewith in inverse order of their contribution to school efficiency.

Public-library control.[1] — The practice of giving the school library a separate room or rooms in the school building and of placing the library directly under the charge of some person is relatively recent, dating back only a few decades. The practice was an outgrowth of the desire of the public-library boards to make their facilities more accessible to the people of the community. The public-library boards early saw that their services could be much extended by the establishment of *branch* libraries in various parts of the community, and they also early realized that since the schools were "community capitols" they were very desirable places in which to locate these branches.

Under public-library control the public-library board usually provides the reading materials, the furniture, and the library staff, and the board of education provides the room, heat, light, and janitorial services. The library is used by both the people of the community and the pupils of the school.

[1] In most states the local public libraries are controlled by separate library boards. There is, however, a tendency to place all public libraries under the direction of local boards of education.

When this type of organization is adopted, attempt should be made to choose a first-floor room with two entrances for the branch library; one of these entrances should be an outside one for the use of the general public, and the other should be an inside one for the use of the pupils and the employees of the school. Provision should also be made for shutting off the room from the remainder of the building during the evenings and the summer months. Whenever possible there should be a double amount of reading space, or provision should be made whereby two rooms may be separated or thrown together; this arrangement will permit complete or partial segregation of the pupils from the general public.

Although public-library control gives to the school a library service which is infinitely better than none, it has certain limitations. Its main limitations are the following:

1. The members of the public-library board and staff are frequently not conversant with the needs of the school nor informed on ways of meeting these needs. Under this type of control the needs of both the general public and the school must be met; this presents a double problem and introduces the possibility that the needs of neither the public nor the school will be adequately met.
2. The use of the library by the general public brings all classes of people to the library and often requires the members of the school to mingle in the library with certain undesirable persons of the community.
3. There is a danger that friction will result between the library authorities and employees, on the one hand, and between the school officials and employees, on the other hand.

Because of these limitations a greater, or a complete, control of their library facilities should be had by the schools whenever possible. Of course, the schools must co-operate with other educational agencies of the community and must keep in mind the cost and difficulty of providing separate services for them. In many communities, therefore, because of the expense involved in maintaining both a school library and a public library, a regard for financial economy will often dictate that the school and the public library join forces in providing library services for both the school and the com-

munity; these conditions will often obtain in the smaller communities especially.

Joint control. — Under this type of control the public-library authorities and the school officials unite in establishing a library *wholly for school purposes in the school building*. The conditions under which this co-operation is being effected vary, of course, from community to community. Although joint control has worked well in a few communities, the testimony of most communities is to the contrary. The most frequent criticisms which school officials and employees make of the plan are that the allegiance of the librarian is divided and that needs occasioned by shifts in school policy cannot be quickly met by the public library. It is always difficult to serve two masters.

There are, however, two sides to all controversies, and it cannot be concluded that joint control should never be used. Although the placing of school libraries under the complete control of school officials is favored, something can be said in extenuation of joint control, particularly in the early life of the school library. The usual arguments for joint control have been summarized in the following words by Hannah Logasa: [1]

> . . . When a school library is established, its connection with the public library makes it possible for it to function almost immediately. The staff of library workers, a book collection already classified and catalogued, and all the machinery for setting up a library are already at hand. The public library can, without loss of time or money, establish a school library that will serve its public quickly and efficiently. Thus it is a great advantage to the school to avail itself of the services of the public library. But this advantage in the early days of the establishment of the school library is lost as time progresses and the demands of the school come in conflict with the policies of the public library. . . .

School control. — Coincident with the growing realization of the school library's importance has come the tendency to place the library completely under the control of the school

[1] *The High School Library*, pp. 21–22. Copyright by D. Appleton and Company.

officials. In fact, in many communities the public libraries as well as the school libraries are placed under the control of the board of education; this practice has much to commend it. Most of the city school systems now have excellent libraries wholly financed, controlled, and administered by the schools; to date, most of these libraries have been established for the junior and senior high schools; in the elementary



Courtesy American Library Association.

FIG. 58. — A Traveling Library Used in Clark County, Ohio. (These "book-mobiles" are in use in hundreds of counties and give service to thousands of schools, especially the rural and village ones.)

schools libraries are less frequently found. Complete control of the school library by school officials gives greater assurance that the needs of the school will be more fully met than they would be met either by joint or outside control. Under school control, responsibility is fixed in the agency which has as its only function the education of the child.

Although the school has its own library wholly under its own direction, it will probably not be financially able to

purchase all the reading materials which the pupils and teachers will need. In such instances it will often be possible to use the public and private libraries to supplement the school library; to this end all school officials and employees should become early acquainted with all library resources of the community. In rural communities which have the services of county libraries, arrangements may be made for regular loans of reading materials to the schools; often these loans may be systematized through the services of a "bookmobile" such as is illustrated in Fig. 58.

In the one-room and village schools the library facilities must usually be limited to classroom libraries. In schools having approximately ten or twelve teachers a separate room for the library should be set aside and provision be made for a librarian's service. This recommendation is particularly made for the secondary school In fact, no secondary school, whether large or small, should attempt to function without a library; it is fortunate that all the school accrediting agencies, such as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, have formulated library standards which all members must meet. In the elementary schools, which place a greater emphasis on the textbooks than do the secondary schools, a separate library with the service of a librarian is not quite so necessary; however, such provisions are recommended for the *large* elementary schools, for example, those having more than twelve or fifteen teachers.

If the school feels that it is not sufficiently large, or is financially unable, to employ a full-time librarian, arrangements can usually be made for one of the teachers to devote part of his time to the library; if such a teacher has had some special preparation, for example, a six or twelve weeks' course in library methods and technique, his library services will of course be much more satisfactory. If better provision cannot be made, keeping the library open a few minutes after school or during only one period each day is infinitely better than not keeping it open at all. Under careful supervision secondary

school students can be of much assistance in operating the library; moreover, their giving of this service is educational to them.

LIBRARY ROOMS AND EQUIPMENT

Rooms. — A first essential for an efficient library is that it have ample, well-located, properly arranged, and otherwise



Photo by Roy Wenger and Hazel Gibbony.

FIG. 59. — A Corner of a Library Which Is the Heart of the School of Which It Is a Part, University School, Ohio State University.

desirable space. Although a classroom or other space for the school library can often be improvised after the school building has been erected, making provision for the library as an afterthought usually leaves much to be desired. A makeshift library is better than none, but the best way in which to secure the *best* space for the library is to have the library definitely in mind when the school building is being planned.

In laying out the space for the library in a new school building, school officials and architects would do well to consult with qualified school librarians. The following is a list of the chief standards which the library room or rooms should meet:

1. The reading room should be not only large enough to care for the present enrollment of the school, but it should make provision for any increase in enrollment which is likely to occur. The minimum size of the reading room for a small school should not be less than the size of an ordinary classroom. Most library standards say that the room should be able to care at one time for 6 to 15 per cent of the enrollment of the school. These standards say, however, that the number of pupils which should be provided for at one time will depend upon such factors as the type of school (whether elementary or high), and the particular type of school organization which the school contemplates having. From fifteen to twenty square feet of floor space for each pupil is suggested as a desirable standard.

2. The library should be centrally located with respect to the classroom and the study activities of the school. Although experience is usually opposed to using the library as a study hall, it usually favors having the reading room and the study hall or halls adjoining; to make the study hall or halls open into the reading room is a desirable arrangement. The library should be located in a part of the building which has as little noise, and as few other distractions, as possible.

3. In the high school at least, it is desirable to provide for a library classroom immediately adjoining and opening into the reading room. This classroom may be used by classes in library instruction, or when it is not thus occupied it may be used as a classroom for other subjects. The room may also be used as an overflow for the main reading room, and it makes a very desirable place for holding committee meetings and faculty meetings. In addition to the library classroom, there should be a librarian's work and store room; ideally, there would be both a work and a store room; neither of these rooms need be large.

4. Plenty of natural light is a *sine qua non*, and provision should be made for adequate and hygienic artificial light. It goes without saying that ample provision should also be made for heating and ventilating.

5. Provision should be made for an ample amount of wall shelving; the shelves should be open, and not more than six or seven feet high.

6. The floor should be as nearly sound proof as possible. Since they are sound deadening, such materials as cork carpet or battleship linoleum make very desirable floor coverings.

Equipment. — Besides the books and the magazines, which are discussed in a later section of this chapter, the equipment of the library should include the following:

1. Reading tables. Tables with dimensions of approximately three by five feet are recommended by most library standards. They should be substantial, movable, without drawers, and without footboards. They should be placed at right angles to the wall having the most windows. Their height should be determined by the size of the pupils using them; not all of them should be the same height.
2. Chairs. These should be of light, but substantial, construction. They should not have arms. Their height should correspond with the height of the tables which they are to serve.
3. Magazine stand or rack.
4. Newspaper rack.
5. Desk for the librarian.
6. Card-catalogue case and stand.
7. Verticle file or files.
8. Charging desk, preferably the U shape.
9. Charging tray.
10. Atlas stand.
11. Book truck. This is especially recommended for the larger libraries.
12. Clock.
13. Bulletin boards. These should be of corticine or an equally good material.
14. Beautiful and meaningful decorations, such as growing plants, casts, and pictures. The reading room should be one of the most attractive rooms in the building — probably the most attractive. Its beauty should be a magnet to every occupant of the building.
15. Other accessories, such as a typewriter, book supports, pamphlet boxes, and supplies.

Many of the above items may be readily constructed by students in the department of industrial arts at small cost to the school. Practically all the items may be constructed in a well-equipped shop, and such items as magazine stands, newspaper racks, charging trays, atlas stands, and bulletin boards may be constructed in almost every shop.

THE LIBRARIAN AND HIS WORK

Importance of the librarian. — Just as the teacher makes the school largely what it is, so the librarian makes the

library largely what it is. As is the librarian, so is the library. It is of little avail to have a library adequately housed and abundantly stocked with books and other reading materials if the person whose duty it is to direct the use of the library is inefficient. A well-qualified librarian will overcome all obstacles and will win for the library an important place



FIG. 60. — A Small School Library in West Lafayette, Ohio, High School. (This library, like those of most small schools, is located in the study hall and is under the supervision of the teachers.)

in the school; indeed, he will make it the heart of the school. Excellent schools usually have excellent librarians.

Qualifications of the librarian. — In personality, professional preparation, salary, requirements for certification, and tenure, the school librarian should be on a par with the teachers of the school. His work is easily as important to the school as is that of any teacher, and his qualifications should therefore be at least as high as those of any teacher. If he has equal qualifications, justice dictates that his salary shall also be as high as that of the teachers of the school.

Most authorities recommend that the school librarian should have an even *greater* amount of preparation than the teachers of the school. In the secondary school, where graduation from a four-year college is generally regarded as the "minimum of respectability" of preparation for the teachers, the authorities recommend that the school librarian possess the same amount of undergraduate preparation and in addition have at least one year of post-graduate preparation in an approved library school.

Many schools have chosen to call their librarian a "teacher-librarian," a title which suggests the functions of both the librarian and the teacher. The person who holds this office is primarily a librarian, but he is also a teacher by virtue of the fact that he gives instruction in the use of the library. Desirable traits and activities of school librarians have been well summarized by Lucile F. Fargo in the following words: [1]

> It is probably evident to most readers why broad culture is needed and why there are required such oft-mentioned personal traits as enthusiasm, approachability, tact, poise, understanding, and the like. . . . It can be said that all these traits are necessary because the school librarian: (a) carries on professional and administrative work in an educational institution; (b) serves every school department . . . ; (c) meets boys and girls on every plane of interest . . . ; (d) must be an expert bibliographer and literary guide . . . ; (e) must be a student of educational method and philosophy . . . ; (f) is a liaison officer operating between the school and varied outside agencies of culture and scholarship such as public libraries and museums; (g) should be qualified to take a place beside the professional staff of the progressive public library or of the school.

SELECTING AND FINANCING READING MATERIALS

Importance of proper selection. — Upon the merit of the collection of reading materials the value of the library largely depends. The fundamental aim of the library is *to stimulate pupils to read, and particularly to encourage them to read an increasingly higher quality of material.* Unless discrimination is

[1] *Preparation for School Library Work*, pp. 99–100. Copyright by Columbia University Press.

used in their selection, the materials may not be read at all, or what is more to be deplored, materials which pupils should *not* read will be made available and will be read. The "wheat must be separated from the chaff" and pupils be made interested only in the "wheat." The school will often find it necessary to eradicate inferior reading tastes before superior ones can be created; this can always be accomplished by gradual degrees. In a few communities the school and other civic agencies will find it advisable to cooperate in eliminating from the newstands copies of trashy books, magazines, and newspapers offered for sale to children; they may also cooperate in eliminating trashy motion pictures from the community.

In selecting the reading materials the needs of the particular school must be kept in mind, and it should not be forgotten that the needs of two schools are seldom, if ever, exactly alike. A well-balanced library will meet the needs of each department, each subject, each activity, and each pupil of the school. There cannot be a *standardized* library any more than there can be a standardized education; every school, like every individual, is a law unto itself. There are, however, certain general principles which should be kept in mind in selecting books and magazines; these principles are discussed herewith.

Book selection. — Since there are millions of books on the publishers' trade lists, and since approximately ten thousand new books are published annually in the United States, the problem of deciding which books to purchase with the limited amount of money available becomes almost baffling.[1] Confronted with such a dilemma the school librarian and the school officials must remember that a library is for *use*, not *show*, and that quality is always a better ideal than quantity. One excellent book is worth more than a thousand poor ones.

[1] For the number of new books, by various classifications, published each year in the United States, see *Publishers' Weekly*, usually one of the January numbers.

In seeking help on, and in trying to decide, what books to purchase, the school librarian and the school officials should begin by making an intensive study of the needs of the school. Above all, they should confer with the teachers of the school, for the teachers are in a more favorable position to be fully informed on the library needs than are other persons. Many of the better organized school systems have appointed committees of teachers to assist the librarian in the selection of reading materials and in otherwise administering the library. Most of the states have general regulations governing the number and kind of books which school libraries shall have and these regulations must, of course, be followed by teachers and school officials; fortunately, though, these state standards are never so rigid that the local school is unable to adapt the standards to its own needs.

Several state lists of books suitable for school libraries have been prepared, and these may be consulted for helpful suggestions; most of the lists may be secured free of charge or at a small cost. In practically every state such a list may be procured from the state department of education; in a few other states it may be procured from the state library commission, the state library, or the school accrediting agency of the state. Separate lists are usually available for secondary schools, elementary schools, and rural schools.

Many other lists are available for the schools of any state, and all of these may be procured at a small cost. Some of the better of such lists are the following:

FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

1. *Children's Catalog.* Revised frequently. The H. W. Wilson Company.
2. *500 Books for Children.* U.S. Office of Education.
3. *Graded List of Books for Children.* Revised frequently. American Library Association.
4. *Children's Reading.* D. Appleton and Company.
5. *The Right Book for the Right Child.* The John Day Company.
6. *Reading for Fun.* National Council of Teachers of English.

FOR THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

1. *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries.* Revised frequently. The H. W. Wilson Company.

2. *Books for Home Reading for High Schools.* National Council of Teachers of English.

3. *Leisure Reading for Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine.* National Council of Teachers of English.

4. *By Way of Introduction; a Booklist for Young People.* American Library Association.

Martha Wilson has written helpfully concerning the number and kinds of books which should be selected for the school library, and we can do no better than to quote from her excellent treatise. The following are her suggestions: [1]

I. BOOK SELECTION FOR THE GRADES AND FOR COUNTRY SCHOOLS

1. Books should be chosen which have direct bearing on all subject matter taught in the school, for reference use and personal reading. The library must supply material for supervised study, the socialized recitation, project work, clubs, and special days.

Reference books will include at least one unabridged dictionary, a simple encyclopedia, an atlas, handbooks of facts and general information, and a one-volume general United States history.

2. Books must be selected to train in habits of observation, to aid in identifying the stars, birds, trees, wild flowers, and wild life in all forms.

3. Some books should be chosen which will help in planning for school activities, such as boys' and girls' clubs, school entertainments, warm lunches, social center work, and debating societies.

4. The library should include those books which are generally accepted as the best of the world's literature, and which should be placed in the way of every child while young. Some of these are: Alcott, *Little Women;* Bunyan, *Pilgrim's Progress;* Baldwin, *Story of Siegfried;* Carroll, *Alice in Wonderland;* Andersen, *Fairy Tales;* Hawthorne, *Wonder Book;* Harris, *Uncle Remus;* Kipling, *Jungle Book;* Lamb, *Tales from Shakespeare;* Macleod, *Book of King Arthur; Mother Goose;* Stevenson, *Child's Garden of Verses;* and Stevenson, *Treasure Island.* There are many others which should be included.

5. In selecting stories, those should be chosen which are strong in human interest, but which will preserve the right ideals of conduct and achievement.

[1] *School Library Management,* pp. 148–150. Copyright by The H. W. Wilson Co.

6. Interesting biography should be provided for all the grades, to follow the reading of the stories of imaginary people, books which will inspire, as well as those which will give interest to the study of history.

7. Books should be included to encourage children's talents and develop skills; books of games, sports, drawing, occupations, such as simple books of sewing and basketry for the girls; mechanics, electricity, and wood working for the boys; also books on vocations for older boys and girls.

8. The books should always be chosen with the pupils in mind, selecting those which are easily within their comprehension, including something for all ages and interests, and to increase general intelligence.

9. Only those should be bought which are wholesome in tone, are written in good English, and contain enough information, beauty, or enjoyment to make them worth while. No books should be bought because they are harmless, but all because they will contribute to the life and work of the schools.

10. Books should be bought in as good editions as can be afforded. An attractive looking book will be read and enjoyed, while a book in small type, poor paper, and dingy cover will not.

The best versions should be chosen for the classics. Literary style is important in children's books not only for the pleasure in reading, but as an aid in vocabulary building.

In all collections, standardization should be the chief aim. New books for younger children are not especially desirable. The books that have stood the test of time, and are real literature, should be provided first. . . .

II. BOOK SELECTION FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Books should be chosen to be used in connection with every subject taught. The library is not for the history and English departments alone, but every subject should be enriched.

The history department should be provided with carefully selected books of biography and history, from all the periods of history taught in the school. . . .

Books must be included which will strengthen civic and social ideals, and foster a feeling for America, as well as the books to give a knowledge of other countries and a sympathy for the new American from foreign lands.

For the home reading for English, the library should provide not only the standard fiction, but also interesting books of varied appeal; vital biographies, travel, and adventure; books to direct the imagination; poetry, old and modern; plays, essays on familiar subjects, etc.

In connection with vocational guidance, books of ethics, the trades

and professions, education and training, and biographies of modern people must be furnished.

Science in readable form and with modern application, books of art in all its forms, music, athletics and sports, books of handicrafts, all must be represented.

Every book in the library should pass the quality test, i.e., truth, good English, wholesome ideas, high moral tone, readableness, vitality. Care should be taken to secure the best on each subject.

A fine edition collection should be built up in every library as rapidly as funds will permit. These books serve to interest students in classics, in owning books, and the teachers of various subjects find them useful for typography, drawing, color, costume, and for the artist's interpretation of literature.

Magazine selection. — The United States is primarily a nation of periodical readers, and secondarily a nation of book readers. Whether this emphasis is wholly approved or not by school officials and employees, the taste of the reader for magazines should be recognized and good periodicals be made available to him. In every school library there should be a collection of magazines of interest to pupils of the grade and the age enrolled in the school. Some of them should be for recreational reading, while others should be for use in connection with the study of various school subjects. Even the one-room rural school should be a regular subscriber to a few of the children's and general magazines of a better type. Those magazines which are valuable for reference use and for leisure reading, and which are worth binding as a permanent part of the school library, should be purchased freely. To make the magazine material more useful a good periodical index should be provided. Although there are many other indexes, the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*, which is published by The H. W. Wilson Company, is one of the better; it is published monthly and is invaluable in the use of magazines, both current and bound.

In addition to the general magazines mentioned above the school library should have a select list of pedagogical magazines for the use of the teachers. In some schools the teachers

are co-operating in building up the "teachers' magazine shelf" of the school by having each teacher make a contribution of a few dollars annually to a magazine fund. In some schools also the board of education makes an annual expenditure for the upkeep of the magazine shelf for teachers. In addition to the *Journal of the National Education Association*, and the organ of the state teachers' association, there should be a liberal purchase of subscriptions to such magazines as *Childhood Education*, *Elementary School Journal*, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *Journal of Educational Research*, *School Review*, and *School and Society*. Of course, this list is not complete, for more than a hundred pedgaogical magazines are being published in the United States, and many more than the few listed above are making valuable contributions to education.

Financing reading materials. — The financing of too many school libraries is an afterthought, and frequently the "thought" has never arrived. Such practices result in "starved" libraries, and the only way in which to correct them is to place in the budget each year a sum to be expended for the school library. The minimum of respectability for this purpose should be approximately one dollar per pupil; in the case of libraries which have been permitted to run down, a larger expenditure will need to be made to bring them to a fair standard.

ENCOURAGING A LARGER USE OF THE LIBRARY

Need for larger use. — Just as "the proof of the pudding is in the eating," so the proof of an efficient library is the evidence of a large use of it. That "a library is a university," as someone has said, is only a part truth. It is more exact to say that "a *used library* is a university." It is of little avail to have a well-planned library room, expensive furniture, well-stocked book and magazine shelves, and a librarian, if these facilities are permitted to be idle. Libraries are not established merely *to look at;* they are established *to use*. In most schools steps should be taken to increase the use of the

library by teachers and pupils, for "he that loves reading has everything within his reach." By means of reading, one may converse every day with the world's greatest personages, past and present. In 1344, Richard de Bury wrote the following appraisal of books:

> These are the masters who instruct us without rods and ferules, without hard words and anger, without clothes or money. If you approach them, they are not asleep; if investigating you approach them, they conceal nothing; if you mistake them, they never grumble; if you are ignorant, they cannot laugh at you. The library, therefore, of wisdom is more precious than all riches, and nothing that can be wished for is worthy to be compared with it. Whosoever therefore acknowledges himself to be a follower of the truth, of happiness, of wisdom, of science, or even of the faith, must of necessity make himself a lover of books.

Means of encouraging use. — In connection with the English courses of study, or as a separate subject in the curriculum, many schools, particularly the secondary schools, give systematic instruction to the pupils regarding the use of the library; such instruction could be given with profit in every school of every type. To assist schools in giving such instruction, the state courses of study, or similar state publications, usually contain helpful materials. The pupils in the lower grades of the elementary school would be greatly benefited by receiving instruction on such topics as the following: how to use the dictionary and the encyclopedia; how to use the table of contents and the index of a book; how to withdraw, to take care of, and to return books; and where to look for certain books in the school library. In the secondary school, such topics as the following may be profitably taken up early in the pupil's course, and in addition the topics suggested above for the pupils of the elementary school may be briefly reviewed: the value of using a library; getting acquainted with the school library; how to use a book; use of reference books; special reference books; book evaluation; use of magazines and the magazine index; the catalogue as an index to the library; library rules; library agencies in the

community, other than school libraries; state-library, and other library, services; the library as an adjunct to the classroom; how to prepare a bibliography; note taking; selection of books for the home library; visual material and its use; and books from which vocational information may be secured.

Other means which various schools have effectively used in building up their libraries, and in encouraging their use, are the following:

1. By the setting aside of a special day known as "Library Day" when a special program is given on the purposes of the school library and its use. In some schools, on this day, each pupil is encouraged to make a gift of one book to the library. Obviously, Library Day could be held most profitably early in the school year.
2. By providing for bulletin boards on which are posted newspaper clippings, reading lists, and other interesting material.
3. By having book exhibits, particularly the provision for a "new book" shelf or a "Have you read this book?" shelf.
4. By preparing reading lists on various subjects and topics. These lists can often be mimeographed and handed to students, or be published in the school paper.
5. By seeing that the shelves are well marked indicating their contents.
6. By having the materials of the library well classified and arranged so that they may be readily found.
7. By having a good card catalogue which lists every reference in the library.
8. By the librarian taking a personal interest in each user of the library. This interest can be shown in such ways as giving help in the selection of books and in calling attention to good books on subjects in which the user is interested, or in which he *should* be interested.
9. By providing for short talks about books. These talks can be given by the librarian, by teachers, or by competent persons outside the school.
10. By printing book reviews and news items on books and on the library in the school paper.
11. By having a library exhibit as a part of all school exhibits.
12. By selecting a "Student Library Board" to assist in promoting the interests, and the use, of the library among the students of the school.
13. By organizing in each school a library committee composed of teachers. It would be the function of this committee to co-operate with

the librarian in building up, administering, and promoting the use of the library.

14. And more important than all, by securing the enthusiastic co-operation of every teacher of the school in making the library what it should be. Without the co-operation of the teachers of the school, the library can never realize its potentialities.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Do you agree with the statement that the library is, next to the teacher, the most important feature of the school? Why or why not?

2. What provisions do the laws of your state make for school libraries? What changes, if any, should be made in the laws? Why?

3. What co-operation, if any, exists in your state between the public libraries and the school libraries? What co-operation should exist?

4. What provisions, if any, are made in your state for the financial support of school libraries? What provisions would you recommend? Should state financial aid be given for libraries? Why or why not?

5. What interest should the state take in the development of school libraries? Should there be a supervisor of school libraries connected with the state department of education? Explain.

6. Outline the steps which you would take to secure a wider use of the school library.

7. How do you account for the fact that a large percentage of our secondary school and college graduates do not read much after they have left school? What remedy, if any, for this situation is there?

8. Outline a plan for securing librarian services in a school of a given size.

9. What attitude should teachers and school officials take toward the sale of trashy periodicals in a community? Should they attempt to have the sale stopped? Explain.

10. Should school libraries be kept open during the summer months? Why or why not?

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PART VII

Special Phases of School Administration

Chapter XXVIII

SCHOOL ACCOUNTING

IMPORTANCE OF ACCOUNTING

No business can be efficiently administered except on the basis of ample, meaningful, and accurate information which will show the functioning of the business *in toto* and in each of its parts. James J. Hill, "the builder of the Northwest," once said, "Ample and accurate information is the first step toward success in any undertaking." Such information makes or unmakes an administration. Opinions, guesses, and vague estimates do not carry much weight in discussions with clear-thinking and truth-loving individuals. The most serviceable implement and weapon of the school administrator in the hurly-burly of his work are good statistics which are always available at a moment's notice. Proper statistics are the foundation and the framework for an efficient administration of a school system; without such data the superstructure of the system is not well buttressed and anchored. It is the purpose of accounting to provide such data.

In Chapter IV it was stated that the administration of a school system involves the performance of three functions. To review, these functions are: (1) the making of policies; (2) executing the policies; and (3) inspecting to see how well the policies are working. None of these functions can be properly performed unless there be ample information. The choosing of policies which have not grown out of complete information is likely to result in the foisting of vicious practices upon the school system; attempting to execute policies

without having any statistics to serve as a guide is like attempting to steer a ship across the pathless waste of the ocean without chart and compass; and not to collect information calculated to show the efficiency of each school employee, each pupil, each material and each process is to permit things to "run themselves" — that would never do.

In brief, every school system which would be efficiently administered must systematically collect, organize, file, and use information which will show the efficiency of every employee, every pupil, every material, and every process. If this information is to be readily available numerous records must be kept — records of teachers, janitors, bus drivers, principals, supervisors, nurses, attendance officers, maintenance workmen, clerks, pupils, budgets, insurance, school bonds, current expenditures and receipts, internal accounts, books, supplies, and school property.

AVOIDING RED TAPE IN SCHOOL ACCOUNTING

School employees frequently complain about the many records they must keep and the large number of reports they must make to their administrative superiors and to other officials; they complain particularly about making reports which they see no evidence of ever being used or of having been examined. School employees frequently call such administrative procedures "red tape."

School officials should attempt to make record keeping and the reporting of statistics as pleasant and as easy a task as possible for all employees. The keeping of records and the making of reports should not be regarded as only another chore to be perfunctorily performed or as a species of red tape to be suffered, but should be looked upon as a necessary function. In collecting statistics from school employees and in deciding on those statistics which the employees shall record, school officials should keep in mind the following matters:

1. Impress upon all persons from whom reports are required the necessity for the information requested. Impress upon them also the

need for accuracy in all information. Do not ask for information which does not serve either a current or an archival purpose.

2. Assure persons who make the reports that use will be made of the reports and that they will always be examined. The majority of the statistics reported should be summarized and a copy of the summary be made available to each employee who has co-operated in furnishing data.

3. The report blanks should be made clear concerning what is wanted. An ambiguous blank is a nightmare to persons who must fill it out, and it hurts the reputation of persons who make it.

4. Consistent with completeness, all report blanks should be designed in such manner that they can be filled out with as little time and energy as possible. Whenever possible, all purely clerical work should be delegated to a clerk.

5. Steps should be taken to get the reports in not later than the deadline announced.

FILING AND PROTECTING RECORDS

Facilities should be provided for the filing of all records, and for the more important ones provision should be made for filing in a fireproof safe or vault. The importance of proper filing, types of filing equipment, and suggestions on the best methods of filing are discussed in Chapter XXX, and these topics need not be dwelt upon here. At this point, however, it is desirable to mention the need for making provision for the *protection* of the records. The large inconveniences and handicaps which happen to a school system when its records are burned or stolen have been demonstrated time and again. The following suggestions looking toward a better protection of school records are made:

1. Fireproof vaults should be built in the central offices in large school systems; likewise such conveniences should be built in each of the larger buildings of the school system. In the smaller systems safes may be used; safes costing from one hundred to several hundred dollars are available for such purposes.

2. When they are not in use, all records, particularly the more valuable ones, should be kept in the vault or safe. At the close of each day all records which have been removed from the safe or vault should be returned, and the safe or vault locked during the night.

Because of the high rate at which school safes and vaults are burglarized, no more money should be kept in them than is absolutely necessary. School safes and vaults have been fair game for burglars largely because of the ease of burglarizing them rather than because of any large amount of money which they contained. When large amounts of money must be placed in the safe or vault because banking facilities are not available, burglary insurance should be carried. It should be mentioned, though, that the cost of burglary insurance is high, especially in the rural districts, and that the expenditure of public funds for it is illegal in several states.

CLERICAL ASSISTANCE

It is a false economy for boards of education to permit, or to require, teachers, principals, superintendents, and other school employees to spend their time in doing work of a routine and mechanical nature which clerks could do much more cheaply, and often much more efficiently. Superintendents and principals, who are receiving annual salaries of several thousand dollars, often spend a large part of their time in doing work which clerks costing one or two thousand dollars annually could do more efficiently; likewise teachers are often permitted, or required, to spend their time and energy in performing functions which could be handled much more cheaply and efficiently by a school clerk.

Most school systems, particularly those having approximately fifteen teachers, could effect a real economy by providing the superintendent with a clerk. Likewise most principals who have approximately twenty-five teachers under their supervision should have the services of either a part-time, or a full-time, clerk. When a clerk is provided, as much clerical work as possible should be taken from the teachers and given to the clerk. These recommendations are based on the assumption that the chief function of teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents is to *teach* and to *improve teaching*. When educational employees are required

to spend much time and energy on clerical detail they will not have enough time and energy for performing that most important function of the school — the teaching function.

In the smaller school systems it is often possible to employ a clerk for the superintendent and to make the clerk responsible also for keeping the financial accounts of the school system or for performing some other school duty. We have in mind a small school system, of approximately twenty teachers, in which one full-time employee acts as (1) keeper of the financial accounts of the board of education, (2) secretary to the superintendent, and (3) school librarian. We have in mind a similar school system in which one person serves as (1) clerk for the board of education, (2) secretary to the superintendent, and (3) teacher of shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping in the high school. These combinations of positions are suggestive of other combinations which may be made in the smaller school systems.

SIZE OF RECORD FORMS

Standard sizes for the various record forms of the school system should be adopted so that the forms may be readily placed in files and cabinets of standard sizes. It is an annoyance to try to place forms in files which are not the right size; and to have a special file made to fit a particular size of form is expensive. The standard sizes of files are $3'' \times 5''$, $4'' \times 6''$, $5'' \times 8''$, $8\frac{1}{2}'' \times 11''$, and $8\frac{1}{2}'' \times 14''$. The $8\frac{1}{2}'' \times 14''$ form is infrequently used and should be avoided if possible. Larger forms, such as financial accounting ledgers, are usually placed in binders. Records such as building plans are usually rolled up and filed somewhere for safekeeping. Forms which need to be sent through the mail should be made of such a size that they will go readily in the ordinary sizes of envelopes.

PERSONNEL ACCOUNTING

Pupil accounting. — As important as any other type of school records are those concerning the pupils. Such records

cannot be neglected by an efficient school system. If the school system has one thousand pupils it should have one thousand sets of records, that is, a set for each pupil. A certain amount of time and energy and a small amount of expense are required to establish and to keep the records, but these requirements are negligible compared with the value of the records to the pupils, the teachers, the parents, and the school officials. According to H. S. Ganders and A. O. Heck, pupil records for a school system should meet the following general standards: [1]

1. All major pupil records should be *cumulative*. This means that a record of a child once commenced shall be continued throughout the child's school history and permanently retained. Additions and changes should be made upon the record from time to time as new information is secured and as old data change. It should follow the child from grade to grade and from school to school.

2. Records should be *uniform* in all school districts with respect to all data which are to be used for comparative purposes. These items should be defined identically and should be recorded in similar places on similar forms and should be recorded by equivalent administrative units. Records should be uniform as to the various periods (day, month, or year). The methods of collection and bases of calculations should also be uniform.

3. Record forms should be *durable*. If records are to be used for a period of eight to twelve years, they should be of such material that they need not be replaced during this period.

4. Record forms should be of such a character that repetition of items is reduced to a minimum. This involves the use of a few comprehensive forms in place of many forms each limited in scope. Where possible, items of information should be obtained "once for all."

5. The organization of record forms should tend to simplify the process of recording and reporting. . . .

6. Pupil records should be sufficiently complete to give the teacher information which is essential for adapting instruction to the needs of the children.

7. Records should be filed with the teachers, attendance officers, nurses, and other school officers who have most opportunity for utilizing the data contained on the records.

[1] "School Records and Reports," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, Vol. V, No. 5, p. 246.

8. Visible equipment may be desirable for the record forms which have to be referred to frequently and where ready reference is essential. [For samples of visible files, see Figs. 74 and 75, Chapter XXX, of this book.]

9. In current practice there is a separation between some of the elementary and secondary pupil records. Although it seems impracticable at the present time to recommend a complete merging of elementary and secondary records to the extent of making them in all cases one and the same, a development along this line is considered probable. . . .

Regrets are expressed that space does not permit the showing here of samples of all of the more important pupil record and report forms. We shall have to be content with showing a sample of the cumulative record for the secondary schools; this form is shown in Fig. 61. Following are the chief types of pupil records and report forms which the typical school system will need to use: [1]

1. An attendance register or record.
2. Pupil's cumulative record (one for the elementary school and another for the secondary school). A sample cumulative record for the secondary school is shown in Fig. 61. The cumulative record should follow the pupil from one school to another.
3. Principal's office record (one for the elementary school and another for the secondary school).
4. Continuous school-census card. [For a sample of such a card, see Fig. 39 of this book.]
5. Teacher's cumulative report on pupil attendance.
6. Teacher's enrollment report.
7. Teacher's report on failures.
8. Pupil's report. This may be the old-fashioned report card, a personal letter, or a variation of one of them.

It is through the report which is given the pupil periodically that the pupil and his parents are kept informed of the pupil's progress. Particular attention should be given to the designing of the report form and to the recording of the data on it. M. R. Trabue says that the following principles should guide teachers and school officials in making reports to parents: [2]

[1] Samples of these more important forms and of several others are given in A. O. Heck and W. G. Reeder, *The Uniform School Accounting System.*

[2] "School Records and Reports," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association,* Vol. V, No. 5, pp. 269–271.

1. The schools' reports to parents should be recognized as having a separate and distinct function of their own which is so important that it should not be weakened by modifications made in the attempt to render them useful for various other different purposes. . . .

2. The parent should be given in intelligible language only as much of the teacher's conclusions about a child as will obtain from that child and from the parent the co-operation that will be of maximum educational value to the child. . . .

3. The reports of the teacher to the parents should be made in language which the parents readily and fully understand. . . .

4. Reports to parents should be no more uniform than the facts to be reported and the advice to be given. . . .

5. The school should report to the parents whenever a report would seem to have any chance of being helpful in the educational development of the pupil concerned. . . .

6. The teacher should keep an accurate record of the character and contents of each report which she sends to each child's parents. . . .

The tendency is away from the old-fashioned report card, which reported only such facts as the pupil's scholarship, conduct, and attendance, and toward a more comprehensive report form containing information on the pupil's habits and character traits. In fact, many schools have abolished the old-fashioned report card and have substituted for it a personal letter written to the pupil and his parents at the close of each semester or year. These newer types of reporting, which are characterized by attempts at providing more and more information on the pupil, are much more time consuming than the old-fashioned types; however, school officials and teachers who have tried them are agreed that they are worth the extra time and energy. The following is a sample of the personal-letter type of report:

INDIVIDUAL TEACHER'S REPORT

Name of student Lottie Jones

Area: English Teacher: LaBrant Date 12-17-40

Students in twelfth-year English have been carrying on a rather extensive program. Their writing has consisted, as in former years, of crea-

tive work, handed in with considerable regularity. Each pupil's work is carefully marked, and his individual difficulties studied. His errors are indicated, and he is required to correct his work for a permanent file record.

In reading, the first work undertaken was the selecting by the class of new books chosen from recent publishers' offerings. In order to make this selection, the students read reviews in the better publications, made individual suggestions, and finally worked out the list through a student committee. These new books, which have been on hand for approximately a month, are being read by the class in preparation for the writing of criticism.

The magazine work initiated by the study of reviews has been continued, and some twenty-five of the best edited magazines in America and England have been examined critically and discussed. Criteria for judging current publications have thus developed with the students.

A further element in the course is the outlining and development of an individual reading project. This has followed a study, by the pupil himself, of his previous reading and his most evident needs. Frequent evaluations of this reading are required.

(The above information concerning the course is mimeographed on a $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8\frac{1}{2}$ page. The teacher's report on the individual pupil is typed on a page of the same size. See below:)

L's writing worries me. She has not produced as much as in previous quarters. That fact alone does not matter. She may well have many interests, and it is perhaps best that she do more and write less. I am, however, disturbed because her sentence structure and punctuation have slipped back a trifle, and her spelling remains much as it has been. I had thought last spring that she was improving rather noticeably. There is some doubt in my mind as to whether L really dislikes her spelling. The writing she does for classes other than English is decidedly bad in form. The suggestions she handed Miss P for the Christmas program were so badly written that they were embarrassing; although the ideas, and the individual phrases were excellent. L has avoided correction, putting things into her permanent folder without allowing me to comment on them unless I deliberately hunted them up. I am not at all certain why she does this.

L's reading and criticism are excellent. Two reports which she made on magazines were superior and showed good organization. The first one, especially, indicated careful preparation. L has been made self-conscious about her writing and class discussion. I am sorry for this, and realize that she has a difficult problem, not of her own making.

(Next follow descriptions of the work covered in other areas and the teachers' individual written reports.)

Of course, there are many other forms which are frequently used in connection with the major forms listed above or are used in the administration of a particular school. Some of the more frequently used of these other forms are the following: notice of transfer; request for pupil's records; request for and notice of withdrawal; notice of unsatisfactory school progress; teacher's report of pupils' marks to the principal; parent's notice of absence and tardiness; excuse blank for absence and tardiness; transcript of high school credits; age-grade blank (illustrated in Fig. 44); and grade-progress blank (illustrated in Table VIII).

Employee accounting. — Every school system should make provision for the systematic collecting and filing of information for each employee the same as for each pupil. A folder, an envelope, or similar container should be provided for each employee and in it should be placed all pertinent and valuable material regarding the employee. Such provision must be made for principals, teachers, nurses, attendance officers, janitors, bus drivers, clerks, and all other employees.

The type and amount of information to be secured will be determined, of course, by the type of employee, by the school laws of the state, by the size of the school system, and by similar factors. Thus, the information to be secured for teachers will be somewhat different from that secured for janitors, bus drivers, clerks, and other employees; and the data to be secured in large systems will be more comprehensive on each employee than the data in small systems. For each employee the personnel form or forms should show such information as the following: name, address, age, health, preparation, experience, salary, amount of absence, efficiency ratings, and date of and reasons for leaving the system. Much of this information should be cumulative. Figure 62 shows a sample of a permanent personnel record for teachers.

TEACHER'S RECORD

Name ..... Date of birth ..... Place of birth .....
Home address ..... Phone No. ..... Nationality .....
In case of emergency notify: ..... Address ..... Phone ..... Ancestry ..... Church .....

Years	*Latest school-year address*	*Phone No.*	*Years*	*Latest school-year address*	*Phone No.*

Picture taken (year) .....

Certificates or Diplomas: Kind ..... No. ..... dated ..... issued by ..... upon completion of a ..... year course of study at ..... (date) ....., valid license to teach ..... in ..... in New York State Expires .....

Retirement Certificate No. ..... Date ..... Years of prior service ....: Kind ..... dated ..... issued by ..... upon completion of a ..... year course of study at ..... (date) .....; valid license to teach ..... in ..... in New York State. Expires ..... Renewed ..... Expires ..... Renewed ..... Expires .....

Kind ..... dated ..... issued by ..... upon completion of a ..... year course of study at ..... (date) .....; valid license to teach ..... in ..... in New York State. Expires ..... Renewed ..... Expires ..... Renewed ..... Expires .....

Grade of work or subjects preferred (in order of preference) .....
School activities or work with which you can help? .....

EDUCATIONAL PREPARATION

School or Travel	*Dates Attended*	*Length of Course*	*Major*	*Minors*	*Date Graduated*	*Degree*	*Years or Credits Granted*

EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE OUTSIDE LOCAL SCHOOLS

Year	*School*	*Location*	*Position, Grade or Subject*	*Time Taught*	*Yearly Contract Salary*	*Amount Received With 4%*	*4% to Retirement*

FIG. 62a.—Permanent Personnel Record for Teachers, page 1. (Designed by Superintendent W. L. Jones, Ballston Spa, New York.)

Name..... TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN LOCAL SCHOOLS

Year	*Building*	*Position: Subjects*	*Yearly Contract Salary*	*Amount Received With 4%*	*4% Contributed to Retirement*	*Days Absent*			*Average Weekly Load*				*Cumulative Preparation in Years and Credits*
						Full Pay	*Part Pay*	*No Pay*	*Teaching Periods*	*Proctoring Periods*	*Pupils Taught*	*Activities*	
19–													
19–													
19–													
19–													
19–													
19–													
19–													
19–													
19–													
19–													
19–													

Elected..... as..... Probationary period of three years started..... Notified services no longer needed..... Appointed to tenure ....., tenure service to start..... Salary level or class.....
Automobile liability insurance carried with..... Company, ..., agent, for $..... & $....
Jointly insures Board? (Yes or No)..... Expires:.....
Health record and miscellaneous information:
Teacher Oath Date .....

Permanent information should be entered in ink; temporary or alterable information may be entered in pencil.

FIG. 62b.—Permanent Personnel Record for Teachers, page 2.

FINANCIAL ACCOUNTING

Purposes of financial accounting. — School-financial accounting serves three purposes: (1) assists in formulating policies for the whole system, or for any part or parts of the system; (2) helps in determining the efficiency of the personnel, materials, equipment, and methods — in other words, helps to measure results; and (3) guarantees the fidelity of individuals who have been entrusted with the custody of public funds.

Only the third of these purposes has been given more than passing attention in most school systems. Although a systematic and periodic audit of the financial accounts of every public official is a *sine qua non*, the first two purposes are much more important. Accounting which assists in realizing the first two purposes is called *cost* accounting. Cost accounting states expenditures in terms of output, of work done, and of service rendered.

Another way in which an efficient accounting system assists in conducting the work of the school system is in making the budget. In Chapter XV, in which the making of the school budget was discussed, it was stated that the budget consists of two parts: first, an itemized list of the prospective revenues and, second, an itemized list of the proposed expenditures. A good financial-accounting system lists each item of revenue which came into the school coffers during the preceding year, and it lists each item of expenditure for the same period of time. This information is necessary for the preparation of the budget for the ensuing school year, because the future can be best predicted on the basis of the past.

Advantages of standardization. — One of the chief criticisms which has been, and is being, made of school financial-accounting systems is the lack of standardization in the accounting forms, definitions, and nomenclature. For several decades attempts have been made to secure uniformity in these matters; although progress has been made, the movement proceeds slowly. New York was the first state (1916)

to prescribe a uniform accounting system. Since that time, uniform systems have been adopted by several states. It is worth observing that all these systems are very similar, following in general the recommendations of a national committee which was appointed in 1912 to draft a set of standard accounting forms and to adopt a uniform accounting nomenclature. On this committee were representatives of the United States Bureau (now Office) of Education, the United States Census Bureau, the National Education Association, and the National Association of Public School Business Officials. The committee made its report in 1912.[1]

The following are the chief advantages which would accrue from uniformity in financial-accounting procedures:

1. It would make it possible to compare financial practices in one community with practices in other communities. For example, unit-cost studies could be made with a greater degree of confidence in their accuracy. Under present financial-accounting methods such studies are almost impossible to make. For example, if a person undertakes to compare expenditures for maintenance of school buildings in several school systems, he is likely to find that his desire is largely defeated because maintenance expenditures are not interpreted the same in all school systems. What one school system calls a maintenance charge another system calls operation, and still another system calls capital outlay.

2. It would make the task of auditing the accounts much easier. Every state provides for systematic and periodic audits of the accounts of every public official. The difficulty with which these auditors work can be readily imagined when innumerable kinds of financial-accounting systems are in use.

3. It would be easier for school officials to make their reports to the United States Commissioner of Education, the chief state school official, the county auditor, the county superintendent, or other agencies. This would be particularly true if the reporting blanks were based upon the accounting forms, as they should be based.

4. It would be easier to train school clerks and other school officials in financial-accounting methods, because there would be only *one* system to become acquainted with and emphasis could be placed on that system.

5. It would make the cost of accounting forms much less.

[1] *United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin*, 1912, No. 3.

Needed financial records. — The number and the kind of financial records for a school system will be largely determined by the size of the system. The larger school systems will need a larger number of forms and a more detailed set of records than the small systems. There are, however, a few records which should be found in every system, whether large or small; within the space limits available, attempt will be made to give the reader an acquaintance with those indispensable records. It is regretted that space will not permit the showing of samples of all the records; it will be impossible to show more than a few of them.

Two major types of facts are necessary in any financial-accounting system, namely, those which show assets and liabilities and those which show income and expenditure. In order that those two types of facts shall always be available, provision should be made for the following five ledger accounts: (1) balance-sheet accounts, (2) appropriation accounts, (3) revenue accounts, (4) operating accounts, and (5) fixed charges. The relationship of these five types of accounts is well illustrated in a chart (Fig. 63) prepared by A. J. Peel.[1]

It will be noted that Fig. 63 shows only the ledger part of the accounting system. Every accounting system must, however, provide for much more information than is contained in the ledgers. It should make provision for the keeping of all original records, such as supplies requisitions, work requisitions, purchase orders, invoices, pay rolls, time sheets, contracts, and canceled warrants. Occasionally it is necessary to refer to these original records, and in auditing they are always necessary.

The most important part of the accounting system is the ledger portion of it, which shows a functional classification of the expenditures of the school system. It is that portion of the system which is generally referred to when the need for *uniformity* in financial-accounting procedures is being discussed. As has been said before, much headway has been

[1] *Simplified School Accounting*, p. 22. Copyright by Bruce Publishing Company.

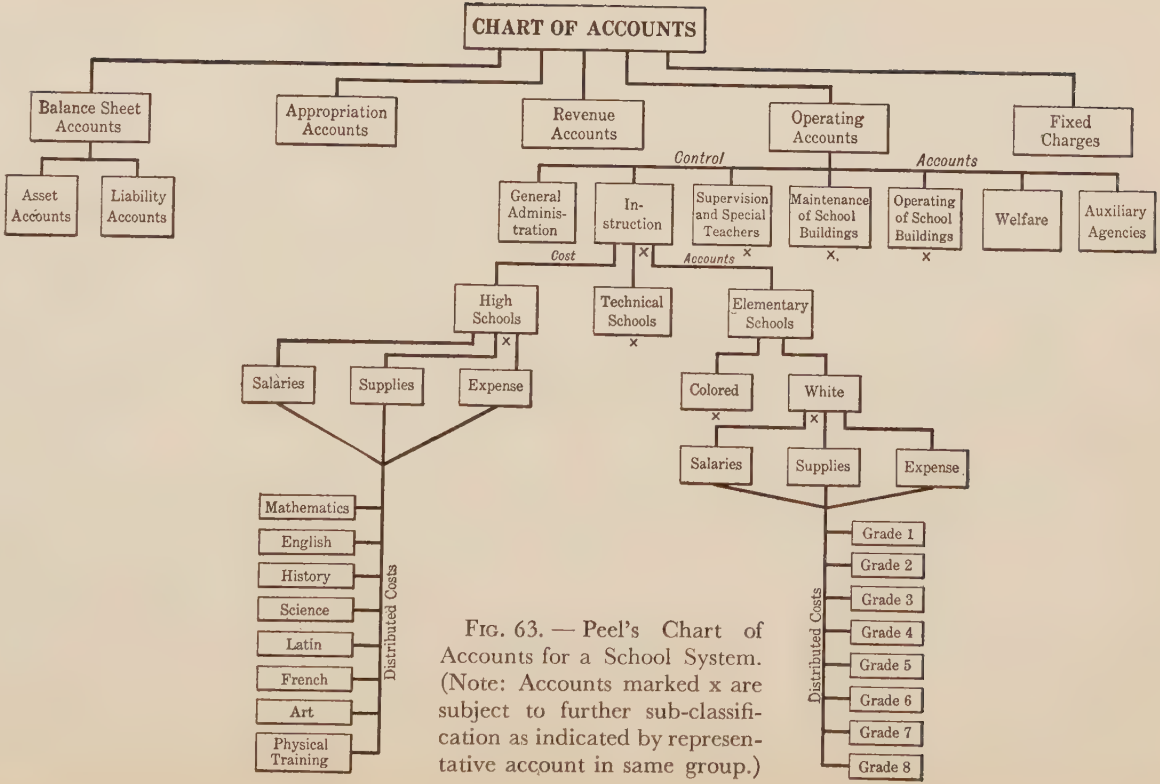


FIG. 63. — Peel's Chart of Accounts for a School System. (Note: Accounts marked x are subject to further sub-classification as indicated by representative account in same group.)

made toward securing this uniformity. Several states now have a uniform system, and thousands of school systems in states which do not prescribe uniformity have adopted the standardized system upon their own initiative. This standardized system is usually called the "National System" and school systems would do well to follow its classifications in the main. Those classifications were followed in the suggested budget form which was presented in Fig. 29 of this book.

Figures 64 and 65 illustrate sample ledger forms for recording expenditures for instructional service and operation of the school plant respectively.[2] Similar ledger forms should be provided for the other major classifications of the National System; those classifications are: general control, maintenance of the school plant, fixed charges, debt service, capital outlay, and auxiliary activities. By using code numbers or letters such as are provided for in one of the columns of Figs. 64 and 65, studies of unit costs of many items are made possible. For example, expenditures for elementary schools could be given the code letter "E" and expenditures for high schools could be given the code letter "H"; likewise a code number or letter could be assigned to each of the buildings, departments, or services of the school system.

Another fundamental record in a financial-accounting system is the *voucher register*. A voucher-register form is illustrated in Fig. 66. A *voucher* is any kind of invoice, bill, or pay roll which has been checked and certified as a legitimate charge against the school system. A voucher register is simply a summary statement of expenditures by functions; its purpose is to give the clerk or bookkeeper information regarding any expenditure which will make it possible to post the ledger accounts at least monthly.

It is a good plan to attach the original document, that is, the invoice, bill, or pay roll, to the voucher form; many school systems use a special voucher jacket on the outside of which

[2] Samples of these and of the other ledger forms may be procured from C. F. Williams and Son, Albany, New York.

Date		Voucher Number	Code	SUPERVISION				
				Supervisors of Grades and Subjects		Principal's Office		
				Salaries	Other Expense	Salary of Principal	Salary of Clerk	Supplies
				1	2	3	4	5
	No. of Item as in the Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education			11-20	12-21	13-22	14-23	14-23
	Appropriation							

FIG. 64. — Sample Ledger Form for Recording

is printed a place for showing the amount to be charged, the name of the payee, the amount of the account, and various

Date		Voucher Number	Code	BUILD			
				Wages of Janitor and Other Employees	Fuel	Water	Light and Power
				1	2	3	4
	No. of Item as in the Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education			31	32	33	34
	Appropriation						

FIG. 65 — Sample Ledger Form for Recording

other items of information which may be required for properly recording the transaction. All vouchers should be filed

Voucher Number	Order		To Whom Issued	Warrant		Total	
	Number	Date		Number	Date		General Control Form 2

FIG. 66. — A Suggestive Form
(From Reeder's *The Business Administration of a*

			TEACHING						
Other Expense		Other Expense of Supervision	Salary of Teachers	Text Books	Other Supplies used in Instruction		Commencement Exercises and Exhibits	Other Expense of Instruction	Total Expense of Instructional Service
6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
14-23		15-24	16-25	17-26	17-26				

Expenditures for Instructional Service.

numerically and kept permanently for auditing purposes and for future reference. From time to time — preferably

INGS, OFFICES AND GROUNDS							Total Expense of Operation of Plant
Janitor's Supplies	General Care of Grounds	Services other than Personal				Other Expense of Operation	
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
35	36	36				36	

Expenditures for Operation of the School Plant.

not less than once a month — the unregistered vouchers should be recorded in the voucher register. In order that the

DISTRIBUTION						
	Proprietary Service					Auxiliary and Sundry Activities
Instructional Service	Operation of Plant	Maintenance of Plant	Fixed Charges	Debt Service	Capital Outlay	
Form 3	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6	Form 7	Form 8	Form 9

for a Voucher Register.

School System, copyright by Ginn and Company.)

entries may be reduced to a minimum, it is often practicable to care for several invoices received during the same month from the same firm by one voucher; likewise the monthly or semi-monthly pay roll may be cared for by one voucher.

Still another fundamental record in a school financial-accounting system is a *cash-receipts book* in which all revenues are listed as they come to hand. In Fig. 67 is shown a simple form which may be used in recording cash receipts. At the close of each month the cash-receipts book should be ruled

Date	Source of Revenue	Purpose	Amount

Fig. 67. — Sample Page from a Cash-Receipts Book. (From Reeder's *The Business Administration of a School System*, copyright by Ginn and Company.)

below the last entry for the month, the entries totaled, and the footings posted to the general ledger account. The monthly financial statements (see Fig. 68) discussed in the next following section of the chapter are made partly on the basis of the data afforded by the cash-receipts book.

Financial statements, and audits. — School officials should take stock periodically of the condition of the finances of the school system; in other words, they should make financial statements periodically. Two types of financial statements should be made. They are (1) an *annual statement* which shows an itemization of the income and the expenditures during the year just closed and (2) the *monthly statements* which show the appropriations compared with the expenditures.

The annual financial statement is required by statute in practically all the states; therefore, school officials cannot escape making it. Most states require that this statement be

published in either a local newspaper or in bulletin form. Whatever information the general public, as well as most of the school employees, have about the finances of the school system, they must secure from these annual statements; it therefore behooves school officials to make the reports as accurate and clear as possible. It is an unfortunate commentary that the making and publication of them is considered entirely perfunctory by a large percentage of school officials; few of the reports are presented in such a way that anyone can readily understand, and will enjoy reading, them.

Accompanying the annual financial statement should be an auditor's certificate stating that the accounts have been audited and that they are in accordance with the laws of the state. This recommendation is made in spite of the fact that most states will need to enact new laws pertaining to auditing before the recommendation can be adopted. Practically all states now require a public audit of the accounts of all governmental agencies, but most of them require it only every two years. We repeat that such audits should be made annually and that publicity should be given them concurrently with the annual financial statements.

The monthly financial statement should be made by the superintendent of schools, the clerk, or other financial officer to the board of education. Such a statement should list the sources of income by month and to date, the amount of the budget, and the budget available. Figure 68 shows a form that may be used in making the monthly statement. In using this form the column captioned "expenditure" should list contractual liabilities rather than disbursements; following this procedure is another means of preventing the expenditures from exceeding the appropriations. The monthly financial statement serves the following purposes: it acts as a budget guide and control; it keeps school officials regularly informed of the status of the school funds; and it enables them to make comparisons of the finances with the preceding year and with earlier months of the same year.

MONTH	INCOME								EXPENDITURE							BUDGET		
	Taxes	State Aid	Rentals	Sale of Property	Foreign Tuition	Depository Interest	Other Sources	Total	General Control	Instruction	Operation of Plant	Maintenance of Plant	Fixed Charges	Debt Service	Auxiliary Agencies	Total Expenditure	Amount of Budget	Balance Available
January																		
To Date																		
February																		
To Date																		
March																		
To Date																		
April																		
To Date																		
May																		
To Date																		
December																		
To Date																		

FIG. 68. — Monthly Income and Expenditure Statement. (From Reeder's *The Business Administration of a School System*, copyright by Ginn and Company.)

In addition to the foregoing statements, which give a history of the finances of the school system during a preceding month or a preceding year, the school system should make at the close of each year an *annual balance statement*. A balance statement is simply a statement of assets compared with liabilities. Such statements are always made by well-managed private businesses, but are infrequently made by school systems. A. J. Peel has the following to say regarding the nature and the function of the balance statement for a school system: [1]

> The limitations of county, city, and school-board accounting systems have long prevented the proper preparation of a statement of assets and liabilities, and instead the long-suffering taxpayer has been befuddled with a mass of figures and strange combinations in which operating expenses have been persistently confused with capital expenditures.
>
> The reader will recall that under the system which has been outlined, the ledger accounts [For Peel's system, see *Simplified School Accounting*, pp. 50–99] are so arranged that all the asset and liability accounts are classified together and follow each other in true sequence. If we take the balances in these accounts after all postings have been made from the voucher register and journal, we shall discover that the assets are in balance with the liabilities and the surplus; or, that the liabilities are in

[1] *Simplified School Accounting*, pp. 110–111.

balance with the assets and the deficit, provided the postings and entries are correct. If we transfer the accounts and balances from the ledger, and arrange them in the form of a balance sheet, this is how they will appear:

BALANCE SHEET

Assets

School sites and buildings	$. . . . .
Permanent equipment	. . . . .
Taxes receivable	. . . . .
Appropriations receivable	. . . . .
Accounts receivable	. . . . .
Cash (various funds)	. . . . .
Securities	. . . . .
Sinking funds	. . . . .
Total	$. . . . .

Liabilities

Accounts payable	$. . . . .
Bonded indebtedness	. . . . .
Short-term loans	. . . . .
Interest payable	. . . . .
Reserves — Depreciation	. . . . .
Reserves — Uncollectible taxes	. . . . .
Reserves — Sinking fund	. . . . .
Surplus	. . . . .
Total	. . . . .

Property accounting and equipment inventories. — All lands, buildings, and equipment owned by a school system should be properly accounted for the same as all revenues. The essence of a system of property accounting is a *property ledger* which will provide the following information for each unit of property: name or description of property; date of purchase, construction, or acquisition through gift; cost; annual depreciation; repair; estimated present value; location; names of contractors and architects (for buildings and permanent equipment only); and name of vendor (for equipment only). Of course, if a property ledger has never been kept, many difficulties will need to be surmounted in

starting one; however, those difficulties can be surmounted, and after the property ledger has been started there will be little difficulty in keeping it up-to-date.

An inventory of all movable equipment should be taken annually by every school system. Such an accounting has the following purposes:

1. It prevents the loss or misplacement of school equipment by giving school officials and employees a greater sense of responsibility for school possessions.
2. It aids in adjusting any insurance claims by showing the equipment which was destroyed, damaged, or stolen.
3. It assists in replacing any item of equipment which has been worn out, stolen, destroyed, or has become obsolete.
4. It indicates any items which are in need of repair.
5. It assists in preventing the purchase of unnecessary equipment.
6. It aids in calculating school costs.

In a few of the larger school systems special clerks keep the inventory records and make the annual room-to-room check of all equipment. In most systems, however, the principals and teachers make the annual check on forms provided for the purpose.[1] All inventory data should, of course, be filed in a fireproof vault in the business office of the school system.

Unit-cost studies.[2] — Just as every well-administered industry makes careful studies periodically of the cost of its product and of various processes, so the well-administered school system should make similar studies. A school system should know how its cost for providing a given material or service compares with that in similar systems; it should know how the costs in a given building compare with those of similar materials and services in other buildings of the school system. Such information will often enable the school system to decrease its costs without lowering the quality of the product

[1] For sample inventory forms, together with explanations of their use, see the Selected References at the end of this chapter; see especially L. L. Ramseyer and G. L. Yelland.

[2] For a sample unit-cost study of pupil transportation, see Chapter XVII of this book.

or without decreasing the quality of the service. The cost of providing any material or service should be calculated when the expenditure for the item is sufficiently large to offer a possible economy amounting to more than the expense of making the calculation; of course, costs cannot be practicably computed for the smaller items of school expense.

There are, of course, innumerable types of unit-cost studies which a school system might make. For example, there are many items of supplies in use in the typical school system and studies might be made of the cost of furnishing a particular supply on a per pupil, or some other, basis. Likewise, many different kinds of services are provided and the cost per pupil, or on the basis of some other unit, of furnishing each of these services might be computed.

Two problems are always confronted in making a unit-cost study, particularly if the study is a comparative one. The first problem is that of securing data which are comparable and accurate. We have already pointed out the difficulty of securing comparable data, because financial-accounting systems, definitions, and nomenclature are not uniform in most school systems. The second problem is to determine the best cost unit for computing the cost of the particular item upon which information is desired. Obviously the same cost unit cannot be used with all items; for example, the average-daily-attendance unit is best to use in certain instances whereas another unit is more practicable in other instances.

Practically all studies of unit costs which have been made have neglected one of the largest items of school expense, namely, the expense for capital outlays; by "capital outlays" is meant the expenditures for new buildings, sites, and equipment. According to the reports of the United States Commissioner of Education, approximately one-fifth of the revenue of the typical school district is expended for capital outlays. Obviously, a study of the per pupil cost of instruction which does not take account of the expenditure for capital outlays

gives a figure that is much too low, and one that is obviously misleading.

Need for more efficient clerks. — It is of little avail to have excellent financial-accounting records if the person who has the responsibility of keeping them is poorly qualified. Worse than this, of course, is to have both obsolete record forms and inefficient clerks. It is an unfortunate commentary that many school districts are handicapped in both these ways.

Although the city school systems are not always free from incompetent clerks, it is in the rural districts that such employees are more often found. In many rural districts the school clerk has no knowledge of the purposes and the techniques of accounting, and frequently he has little general education. In rural districts it often happens that no one can be found who is competent to keep even a simple set of financial records; if such a person should reside in the district, it frequently happens that he will not accept the position of school clerk because of the small salary.

Many of the small school systems are securing more efficient clerks by employing some person full time for keeping the financial records and for performing other duties. For example, the clerk frequently serves as secretary to the superintendent. In the rural schools there would be advantages in employing a full-time clerk for all, or several, of the school districts of the same county; such a plan would probably secure more efficient clerical service, and would often secure it cheaper for each district than under the present plan. This plan could be readily adopted if small districts had a disposition to co-operate; however, it must be reported that not many districts have shown such disposition.

Every clerk and all other employees who handle school funds should be bonded to an amount equal to the amount of money in their charge; in fact, practically all the states have statutes making this requirement. For this purpose a surety bond written by a reliable company is preferable to a bond

given by individuals. The cost of the bond should be borne by public funds.

Internal accounting. — Most schools, particularly the secondary schools, conduct many activities of an extracurricular or a non-academic nature, and most of these activities are revenue producing and revenue spending. The major types of such activities are lunchrooms, athletics, school societies and clubs, bookstores, and school publications. There are, of course, many other types of such activities of a minor nature. In many school systems these activities produce and spend thousands of dollars annually and the accounting for these funds must be carefully controlled and supervised.

Every school system should have rules and regulations governing the finances of these activities. Although the funds are not strictly of a public nature, the public has an interest in how the funds are raised and spent. Unless systematic accounting for the funds is provided, a legitimate expenditure of the funds cannot always be assured, the reputations of individuals are apt to be besmirched, and policies for the administration of the activities are not likely to be properly made or efficiently executed. In formulating rules and regulations governing these matters, school officials should be guided by the following principles:

1. For all internal funds a uniform system of financial records should be established.[1] Such a system of records should provide for such forms and books as the following: receipts and expenditure ledger; requisition; purchase order; voucher check; stores and equipment record; ticket receipt; locker receipt; and pay-roll blank.
2. The responsibility for the management of all internal funds should be vested in the principal of the school. He should, of course, be permitted to delegate any responsibility to a regular employee of the school.
3. A report of the status of all funds should be made monthly to the board of education.
4. The funds should be audited annually and should be subject to a more frequent audit upon the decision of the board of education.

[1] Samples of these forms are found in many of the Selected References listed at the close of Chapter XXV of this book.

In the Detroit, Michigan, school system the rules of the board of education provide that all receipts from athletics, lunchrooms, bookstores, and similar activities are deposited with the business department of the school system at the end of each month. These moneys are deposited with the general funds of the school system, and an appropriation covering the total costs of operating these activities and an offsetting credit are included in the budget each year. All expenditures for the activities are made through the central office in the same manner as are all other expenditures of the school system; individual schools make no expenditures.[1]

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. In which of the following types of accounting forms, if any, should there be state uniformity: financial, pupil, and employee? Why? Should there be national uniformity in any of them? Explain.

2. How do you explain the fact that the movement toward uniformity in school accounting has not received a larger momentum?

3. How would an efficient and uniform financial-accounting system aid in each of the following ways: in preparing the budget; in training financial-accounting officials; in making comparative studies; in making studies of unit costs; and in auditing the financial accounts?

4. What recommendations would you make looking toward securing a more efficient type of school clerk, particularly in the rural schools?

5. In figuring the cost of education, should a charge be made for capital outlay? Why or why not?

6. What types of unit-cost studies should school officials make?

7. How do you explain the fact that cost accounting is less frequently practiced in school administration than in private business?

8. What relation should exist between a financial-accounting system and the financial-report blank? Why?

9. What is the law of your state regarding the bonding of fiscal officers, and what changes, if any, would you make in the law?

10. Would you recommend that school systems make an annual balance statement? Why or why not?

[1] Although it is out of date in a few particulars, an excellent description of the Detroit system, together with all forms used, may be found in A. B. Moehlman's *Public School Finance*, pp. 443–469.

11. What types of records should follow the pupil who transfers from one school to another? Explain.

12. Make a list of the pupil records which should be cumulative and justify the inclusion of each. Do the same for employee records.

13. School employees often complain that no use is made of statistics which they are requested to send to school officials. What steps can be taken to decrease such complaints?

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Chapter XXIX

PUBLIC SCHOOL RELATIONS OR PUBLICITY [1]

NEED FOR INFORMATION

In private business. — During recent years there has been a phenomenal development in publicity and advertising in private businesses. In the United States millions of dollars are now spent annually by private businesses for advertising calculated to secure the good will of the public and to sell services and materials to the public. The necessity for keeping the *public* informed and sympathetic is recognized by all well-managed private businesses. Moreover, private businesses have long realized the necessity for keeping all *stockholders* informed of the status of their investments. The stockholders are being given this information through such means as the annual meetings of stockholders, periodic reports of earnings, and systematic balance sheets; in fact, federal laws now *require* corporations to provide their stockholders with such information.

In school affairs. — The people are the stockholders in the school enterprise and they have the same right to be kept informed concerning their most precious public possession as have the stockholders in private business; indeed, they *will* be informed through some source and in some manner. School officials and employees must decide, therefore, whether they shall help the people to become intelligently and com-

[1] "Public school relations" and "publicity" have the same connotation. In public affairs, though, the use of the word "publicity" must be guarded, because to many people it suggests press-agentry, covering up defects, and always putting "the best foot forward." In this chapter we shall occasionally use the word "publicity" because of its literary convenience.

pletely informed and thereby to be guided into a sympathetic understanding of the schools, or whether they shall permit them to become misinformed or partly informed through rumor or hearsay and thereby turned into lukewarm supporters or even enemies of the schools.

If the people are taken into the confidence of school officials and employees through being given information concerning the purposes, accomplishments, and needs of the schools, they are more likely to support the schools through both foul and fair weather; but, if they are kept ignorant of these matters they are likely to regard school officials and employees as tyrants, to be skeptical of requests for extra tax levies, and to be unable or unwilling to co-operate with the schools in any way. Familiarity of the public with the work of the school does *not* breed contempt. In a democracy the people are sovereign and their fundamental desires concerning the schools are expressed through the ballot. Manifestly their ballots cannot be intelligently cast without adequate information. Abraham Lincoln, one of the greatest exponents of democracy, once said:

> Public sentiment is everything. With public sentiment nothing can fail, without it nothing can succeed. Consequently he who molds public sentiment goes deeper than he who enacts statutes or pronounces decisions.

A program of public school relations is therefore necessary at all times. It is particularly necessary in times of financial stress and of growing competition for public funds such as recent years have been. Moreover, its necessity grows every year because of the increasing size and the growing complexity of education. By a strange irony, the difficulty of providing such a program increases at approximately the same rate as the necessity for providing the program.

Since the basis of a public-relations program is *information*, the chief task of school officials and employees in conducting the program is to secure, to organize, and to present that

information. For school officials and employees to perform the task will require time and planning the same as such duties are required in making a curriculum, erecting a school building, or performing any other school duty. Most of the information will have to be secured and organized through research techniques. The wiles of the "back-slapping, baby-kissing politician" will no longer suffice.

STANDARDS FOR SCHOOL INFORMATION

Information about the schools should meet at least the following five standards:

Truthfulness. — The first standard which school information should meet is truthfulness. To follow such a precept is not only ethical, but it is "good business." People soon discover whom they can believe and trust. To paraphrase one of "Honest Abe's" sayings, it may be possible to "fool" all or most of the people once, but few of them can be "fooled" twice. The people are entitled to the truth about the schools, and they are not likely to be satisfied with less. They soon learn to accept with "a grain of salt" any information calculated to "cover up," to "gloss over," or to "put the best foot forward."

The plea for truthfulness in school information does not mean, of course, that the truth must always be "shouted from the housetops." Often, "silence is golden." In working with pupils, parents, and colleagues, school officials and employees secure much confidential information as do physicians in dealing with their patients; such information cannot ethically be made public. The welfare of the schools, and especially the welfare of the pupils, should determine what information should be provided. If the releasing of certain information — assuming that there is no legal demand that it be released — would harm the schools, would unnecessarily embarrass certain persons, and would serve no useful purpose, it should not be presented. Information on such personal matters as the following might justifiably be withheld: the dismissal of em-

ployees; the marks of pupils and of teachers on examinations; the I.Q.'s of pupils; and the suspension or expulsion of pupils. The dissemination of such information would serve no purpose, except to satisfy idle curiosity. *All the truth that is fit to tell* should be the informational policy of the school.

Unselfishness. — A second standard, namely, unselfishness, is closely related to the first. School information should have no "ax to grind" other than the desire to promote the welfare and progress of the pupils. Like all phases of the work of the school, it should ever be a slave to the pupils' interests. The glorification and aggrandizement of school officials or employees should not be within its purpose. Personal advertising for members of a true profession can ethically come only from work well done.

Continualness. — A third standard is continualness. The emphasis in a public-relations program should be placed on continuous information which will appear from day to day throughout the year rather than on spasmodic information such as is given during publicity campaigns. Continuous information of the proper sort is likely to lead to ordered progress for the schools, whereas dependence on the publicity campaign is likely to result in uncertain or irregular progress. Although the publicity campaign is often necessary to secure favorable action upon a request for an extra tax levy or some other purpose, if the continuous publicity has been well looked after, the publicity campaign is much more likely to be successful. There is a semblance of unethical practice in the actions of school officials and employees who keep the people in the dark about the schools, until something is wanted from them; that is a "public-be-shunned," if not a "public-be-damned," attitude. Who could blame the people for refusing requests that are made under such conditions! In performing their public-relations functions, school officials and employees might well take a lesson from the astute candidate for public office; such a candidate is likely to be campaigning throughout the year,

whereas his less discerning opponent is likely to be ignoring the electorate until a few weeks before the election.

Clarity and interest. — A fourth standard is clarity and interest. School information should be presented in a clear and interesting manner in order that all community groups will derive benefit from it. In other words, the information should be humanized. With the proper attention given to it, even somewhat technical information may be presented in such manner that this criterion will be met. Information that is not humanized is like so much "water on a duck's back." In presenting information, school officials and employees should keep in mind the many interests, the various culture patterns, and the different levels of education which are found in the community. In an attempt to meet various culture patterns a few school systems send out notices and reports written in the various languages of the parents receiving them. Further evidence that school officials are increasingly attempting to humanize school information is seen in the recent tendency toward such practices as the use of pictorial school reports, of motion pictures of local school activities, and of night schools or other visiting periods.

The groups which must be reached in the public-relations program of the school are the school board members, school employees, pupils, parents, and that motley group known as the general public. Appropriate information must reach the members of all these groups. Often the same sort of information will appeal to all groups, but at other times special information must be prepared for only one group or for only one portion of that group; for example, teachers need certain types of information regarding the school or school system, and much of this information would not be appropriate for other groups.

Proper amount and desirable balance. — The fifth standard is proper amount and desirable balance. Although most schools and school systems err in the direction of providing too little information, a few schools and school sys-

tems devote too much time in telling about what they are going to do or have done. The latter types of schools and school systems would be more highly regarded if they devoted more attention to *doing their work* and less effort to "press-agenting" themselves. In the final analysis, good work of the schools, like good "mousetraps," generates the most potent publicity that can be received, and it should never be neglected. The first duty of school officials and employees is to run the most efficient school possible; to provide information about the school, although it cannot be neglected, is secondary. To paraphrase an old remark, the people cannot hear what is *said* about the schools when what the schools *are* is constantly dinning their ears.

In addition to being given in the proper quantity, school information should be balanced, that is, each aspect of the school program should receive its proper share of information. No department or activity should receive too much publicity to the neglect of other departments or activities. An unbalanced diet of school information is likely to be as harmful to the schools as too much pie or cake is to the human body. In a study made by Belmont M. Farley it was found that many types of information are being emphasized in which parents are only secondarily interested, and that many types in which they are primarily interested are being neglected. Farley found that the people are most interested in such topics as pupil progress and achievement, methods of instruction, and health of pupils, but that few newspaper items appear on these topics; he found that, although the parents are least interested in the topic, 47.1 per cent of all newspaper publicity is devoted to extracurricular activities.[1] From Farley's study it is obvious that school officials and employees are failing to place first things first in their public-relations programs.

A study by Charles R. Foster of newspaper editorials on education comes to essentially the same conclusion as Farley's

[1] *What to Tell the People about the Schools*, pp. 16 and 49.

study. Foster found that "athletics" and "the general value and purpose of education" vie for first place as subjects for editorials among the 8939 editorials on education. He found the following important topics to be largely ignored by the press: the school subjects; methods and procedures used in teaching; measurement of the outcomes of instruction; vocational education; success or failure of students; character education; vocational guidance; treatment of controversial issues in the classroom; non-promotion and failures; tenure of teachers; special education for the handicapped; and adult education.[1] Few newspaper editors would resent having the superintendent of schools call their attention to the many neglected topics for editorials.

THE PUBLIC-RELATIONS ORGANIZATION

The public-relations program of a school system should be organized and systematized the same as every other phase of schoolwork. Such an organization should be provided whether the school system be large or small. School systems use one of two plans — the centralized organization or the representative organization.

Centralized organization. — In the centralized plan the public-relations service is regarded as a division of school administration and is headed by someone in the office of the superintendent of schools. Under it the superintendent may (1) perform the duties in person or (2) delegate them to an assistant. In most of the small school systems the superintendent performs the duties in person, but in many of the larger systems a news director is employed.

Representative organization. — In the representative plan the informational service is headed by a committee of school officials and employees. The plan is favored by many school officials and employees because of its greater democracy.

[1] *Editorial Treatment of Education in the American Press*, pp. 263–264.

A CONTINUOUS PUBLIC-RELATIONS PROGRAM

As was stated earlier, the emphasis in a public-relations program of the schools should be upon continuous, or day-by-day, information. If continuous information is properly handled, the people will always be informed upon, and appreciative of, the schools, and they will be more likely to react favorably to campaigns for additional tax levies, for bond issues, and for other requests. In the next succeeding pages the chief media which the schools may use in their continuous public-relations programs will be listed and briefly discussed.

Word-of-mouth publicity. — Whether for an individual or for an organization, the most effective type of publicity is that of the word-of-mouth nature. The basis of good publicity of this nature, as indeed it is the basis of all honest and effective publicity, is *work well done* or *service efficiently rendered*. Business concerns must depend for their existence and prosperity upon what the people think of their services and products. Likewise, the schools are dependent upon the quality and the amount of their work for the good will and financial support of the public. "By their fruits" the schools are, and should be, known. All the organized publicity in the world cannot give a school system a good reputation when its work is obviously bad.

At the center of the word-of-mouth publicity of the school are the pupils. They see all, hear all, and are not hesitant to tell all. The manner in which they appraise the school largely determines how their relatives and friends appraise it. They are the most persistent and active dispensers of information concerning the school. They will applaud an excellent school and disdain an inferior one.

Co-operation with newspapers. — Probably next in importance to the word-of-mouth publicity is that given by the newspapers. Practically every community which has as many as a thousand inhabitants has at least one daily or weekly newspaper. These papers are read in practically every home

of the community, and they therefore wield a tremendous influence in informing the public and in molding public opinion. Newspapers are glad to publish school news, and the school administrator who forgets to, or will not, co-operate with them in furnishing school news to the public is missing a rare opportunity to further the educational interests of the community.

In every community large enough to have a daily newspaper the office of the superintendent of schools is worth a daily call by a reporter, either by telephone or in person, and most newspapers will arrange for such call, and continue the arrangement, provided the reporter is treated with respect and is given school news occasionally. Likewise, the weekly papers in the smaller communities are glad to include the superintendent's office on the weekly "beat" of the reporter. The fear which many school officials and employees have of reporters is unjustified; they do not violate confidences, they try to tell the truth, and they can be trusted.

There should be a continuous flow of school news from the superintendent's office to the newspapers. In every school system there are numerous school plans and activities in which the public is vitally interested and which the newspapers are more than pleased to bring to the public's attention. Such items as the following are news in every school system: the time of the beginning and the closing of the school year; school vacations; the appointment, promotion, or resignation of teachers; the doings of parent-teacher associations; plans for new school buildings, for new courses of study, or for other improvements; school contests; honor-scholarship rolls; honor-attendance rolls; and accomplishments of students, teachers, or school officials. Many school officials find it helpful to maintain a *publicity calendar* which reminds them of the date on which certain standard types of information are to be given to the newspapers. Since ideas are elusive things and frequently come to mind and then flit away never to return, it is a good plan for school employees

to make a written note of each special news item that comes to mind; the use of this plan will result in a less frequent repetition of the words which are said to every reporter — "no news today."

In addition to giving publicity to the larger aspects of the educational program, the newspapers of many communities are co-operating with the school in running regularly a school page or column in the newspapers. In this page or column is usually published news of the happenings and activities at the various school buildings. In some schools which have this arrangement certain students are selected to be responsible for collecting the news and for preparing it for publication under the guidance of a faculty adviser. In other schools certain teachers have the responsibility for collecting and preparing the news.

Student publications. — Among the more important types of publicity media of a school or a school system are the student publications, such as the daily or weekly paper, the monthly magazine, the annual or yearbook, and the handbook. In addition to their value in mirroring the school's ideals, aspirations, and accomplishments, student publications can be to the teaching of English what the laboratory is to chemistry or physics, or what a farm plot is to agriculture. Still more, these publications may become one of the most effective agencies in developing and sustaining an excellent morale among the student body of the school.

Most of the student publications are found, as would be expected, in the larger high schools. The elementary schools and the smaller high schools obviously find it more difficult to edit, to prepare, and to finance them. Because lithographed or mimeographed editions are cheaper, many of the smaller schools have substituted them for printed editions.

In all types of schools, especially in the smaller ones, the tendency during recent years has been away from the publication of school annuals and magazines and toward the

publication of school newspapers which appear more frequently. In rural communities many of the high schools which formerly published separate annuals are now cooperating in the publication of a county annual; by this plan the expense for each school is greatly reduced. Other small high schools bind the various copies of the school newspaper and make this volume serve as a school annual.

Most of the large high schools, and many of the small ones, provide each student with a handbook of the school. A handbook serves the purpose of answering questions regarding the curriculums, the requirements, the traditions, the organizations, and other features of the school. It should be one of the first student publications. It is a great saver of time both for the students and for the faculty. It should be distributed free or at a small cost.

The annual report. — Since colonial days the practice of making annual reports has been fairly common, particularly among the larger school systems. This practice is found especially in the New England states, in most of which the making of annual reports has been required by state law for several years. In the following discussion the term "annual report" shall mean the published statement of the superintendent of schools or board of education, which is issued annually or at longer intervals. Most school systems, which publish reports, issue them annually; a few systems, though, make them cover two, three, four, or some other number of years.

Fortunate is the superintendent who is required to make, or who chooses to make, an annual report. He is fortunate because the project gives training in the collection, the assembly, the presentation, and the interpretation of data. The project is another stimulus tending to keep the superintendent alive. Rather than to regard the project as a bit of drudgery or as a chore to be perfunctorily performed, it should be looked upon as an opportunity for the superintendent to extend his education and his prestige. Many

superintendents have acquired national reputations largely because of their excellent reports.

The chief purpose which the annual reports should have in mind is well stated in the introductory pages of the 1841–1842 report of the school committee of Fall River, Massachusetts; that report says:[1]

> The statutes of the state require that the general school committee shall make a detailed report to the town of the condition of all the schools under their general supervision. Those who are taxed to support public schools have a right to know how their money is expended, and what is the character of the schools which they are required to maintain. The committee are but the agents employed by the town to take the agency of common school education, and the employer ought to be made acquainted with all that appertains to his interest in respect to this agency. What the committee know as to the schools, the town ought to know.

In addition to the purpose mentioned in the above quotation — a purpose as important today as it was in 1841–1842 — the annual report constitutes another chapter in the history of education of the community. In other words, the annual report has *archival* value. It was fortunate for the history of education that the school systems of the New England towns early began the practice of publishing an annual report, because we owe to these musty documents our greatest debt for knowledge of the history of education of this early period. Every generation owes to succeeding generations a preservation of the civilization of the past and present. Future generations will be interested in the schools of today, just as the present generation is interested in the schools of yesteryears. The making of excellent school reports and the preservation of them is a legacy which every community should hand down to future generations. In brief, the historical value of an excellent report would justify the report even though it might be read by only a few persons of the present generation.

[1] Quoted from M. G. Neale's *School Reports as a Means of Securing Additional Support for Education in American Cities*, pp. 4–5.

No school report, however, completely realizes its potentialities unless it is read by a large number of people of the present generation as well as by research students of future generations. There is a refrain of criticism of school reports today on this score. School reports are infrequently read even by school employees, and laymen who read them are almost as scarce as dodos. Certainly some way can be devised whereby school reports can be made to affect school practice as did those of Horace Mann in the state of Massachusetts. Those reports were generously read and they greatly affected school practice, because the author had something to say and he said it in a clear, concise, and interesting way; there is the simple formula for any literary success.

Wishing to make an annual report, the neophyte superintendent should examine the best reports of other school systems for suggestions. In making this examination, however, he should keep in mind that to make his report exactly like one of these, or like the average report, would probably not give him the best report for his school system; such uncritical imitation usually becomes a wobbly crutch to one's efforts. His report should be made for a school situation which has objectives, needs, and accomplishments peculiarly its own.

Regarding the type of information which should be presented, there are certain statistics which should usually, if not always, be presented; among these perennial data are those on enrollment, attendance, pupil progress and accomplishments, and finance. In addition to these topics, other features of the schools should be treated from time to time.

The suggestions given above, together with other suggestions for making the annual report better serve its purposes, are summarized herewith:

1. The report should be issued as soon after the close of the school year as possible. Work should be begun upon it several weeks before the close

of the school year so that when all statistics for the school year are complete, publication can proceed at once. A report which appears several months after the events which it chronicles have occurred will have lost much of its reading interest.

2. The report should be addressed to the public and it should be written in language which the average citizen can readily understand. The use of technical terms, when non-technical terms would do just as well, should be avoided. The report is not prepared primarily for the school expert; it is written primarily for the layman. It should be another illustration of the humanizing of knowledge.

3. All statistics of the report should be checked to insure their accuracy. Moreover, they should be shown in such a way that the ordinary reader will readily understand them. Too frequently the statistics of school reports are as murky and uninteresting as railroad timetables.

4. To give interest and clearness to the report, illustrations should be generously used. Many statistics should be shown graphically, and certain features of the schools should be shown pictorially. The layman will often look at graphs and pictures when he would balk at reading statistical tables. A few school systems now make their annual reports in two parts, namely, a pictorial volume for the general public, and a statistical volume for reference. Still other school systems use a newspaper or magazine form in making a pictorial report to the public; they also publish a statistical volume.

5. The mechanical construction of the report should be of a good quality. For example, the paper should be of a good grade and the type should be of the proper size. The cover should be attractive. In brief, the report should be "irresistible" from cover to cover.

6. The report should contain either a table of contents or an index, preferably both.

7. If the school system is too small or too impoverished to pay for the printing of a report, it may have its report lithographed or mimeographed at much less cost. During recent years the tendency has been for the small and medium-sized school systems to use the mimeographed type of report.

8. Steps should be taken to secure the reading of the report by school employees and by the more educated and interested people of the community. In many school systems the annual report constitutes the topic for discussion in one or more of the teachers' meetings. Many phases of the typical report make good news items, and most newspaper editors are glad to give them space in their papers.

9. A copy of the report should be deposited in the archives of the school system so that it will always be available for reference. Moreover, a few

copies should be made available, either free of charge or at a small cost, to libraries and school officials of other communities.

Special reports on live topics. — Similar in format and purpose to the annual reports are pamphlets, bulletins, or monographs on live school topics. In fact, many of the larger school systems today are making the annual report a collection of special reports, issued from time to time during the school year, and supplemented by certain standard statistical information which it is deemed advisable to publish every year for the sake of permanent record and reference. The chief advantage of the special report is its *timeliness.*

The topics to be treated in special reports should be determined by the needs and interests of the school system; the live problems of two school systems are not always the same, nor are they always the same in a given school system from one year to the next. Probably the one topic perennially alive in every school system is the school budget. Many school systems prepare each year a summary of the proposed school budget in comparison with former budgets and present a copy to each home in the district. The most frequently made report is the annual *financial* report required by law in practically all states; since this report has been discussed in Chapter XXVIII, more need not be said about it here.

Parent-teacher associations. — The parent-teacher association movement on a national basis dates back to the National Congress of Mothers founded in 1897. In 1908, that name was changed to National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations. The present name, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, was taken in 1924. Thousands of units of the National Congress are now in operation and these have a total membership of more than two million.

Although these organizations have occasionally overstepped their functions and have attempted "to run the schools,"

and in spite of the fact that they have occasionally seen the needs of only *their* children to the exclusion of the interests of all other children of the school system, they have usually been guided by sound principles and actuated by altruistic motives. They have been especially helpful in making parents and teachers acquainted, in eliminating difficulties between parents and teachers and between pupils and teachers, and in stimulating a community sentiment for education. They are eminently worth school encouragement and guidance.

Miscellaneous opportunities for publicity. — Below are listed some of the miscellaneous opportunities for publicity which the school or school system has:

1. Addresses before the meetings of such organizations as parent-teacher associations, mothers' clubs, luncheon clubs, Red Cross, American Legion, churches, and lodges can be made by school officials and teachers. School employees are frequently invited to address such organizations, and these invitations afford them another opportunity to "sell and to resell" the schools to the public. The radio may also often be used for such addresses.

2. The publication of a school house organ, which will be circulated primarily among the employees of the school system, can be carried on. A printed house organ would be practicable only in a large school system, but a variation of it may be used in every school system by means of mimeographed material. Handbooks also may be provided for large groups of employees such as teachers and janitors. A handbook answers pertinent questions and is particularly helpful to the new employee.

3. Special days or hours can be announced when the public is especially invited to see the school at work. During every school year many schools, particularly the high schools, have one or more evening sessions for the benefit of the public. The public should be made to know, however, that the school's "latchstring is always out."

4. School exhibits may be arranged at fairs and at other appropriate places. Exhibits of schoolwork can often be placed in stores and in other public places where they may be seen by the public; if possible, these exhibits should be changed every few weeks.

5. Motion pictures may be taken of school activities and shown at various community meetings.

6. School programs and contests present another excellent opportunity. Among these programs and exercises are musicales, lectures, dramas, and contests in various fields such as athletics, oratory, debating, music, and spelling. The commencement program provides one of the best opportunities to give information concerning the school; this is particularly true when the new-type program of increased pupil participation is used.

7. Every school and school system should co-operate in staging "American Education Week." This occurs during the week in which Armistic Day falls; however, many school systems which have school-levy campaigns celebrate it a few days before the November election. Helpful suggestions for staging the week may be secured each year from the National Education Association, one of the chief sponsors of the week.

8. Finally, all school employees, from the superintendent to the lowly janitor, have a large opportunity to "sell" the schools through their multifarious community contacts. They should realize that their every act has a public relations aspect.

THE PUBLICITY CAMPAIGN

Purpose. — Although the day-by-day, or continuous, publicity may have been well looked after over a period of several years, it is usually wise to have a short and intensive campaign of publicity preceding a public election on any school proposal. Among the more common proposals upon which the people are occasionally requested to express their deci-

sions, and upon which they will usually need special enlightenment, are: the increase of the tax levy for a new school plant, for higher salaries for teachers, or for some other school function; the changing of the boundaries of the school district; and the centralization of schools.

If the publicity campaign is not well conducted, particularly when it has for its objective the securing of additional revenue for the schools, the people will occasionally fail to approve the request. During recent years the tax rates for all governmental functions have mounted rapidly, and the public has begun to groan under its tax burden and to insist that the need for additional revenue be conclusively proved to it. When the need for it is proved, the public stands ready and willing to grant additional revenue.

The type of proposal upon which the people are being asked to vote will largely determine the type of campaign which should be conducted. Thus a campaign for a tax levy should be somewhat different from a campaign for the changing of the boundaries of the school district; and a campaign for money for a new school building should be somewhat different from a campaign for money to increase teachers' salaries. There are, however, certain matters which should be kept in mind whatever the purpose of the campaign. These matters are briefly discussed herewith.

Justification of proposal. — Requests should not be made unless they can be fully justified. To make an unjustifiable request is sure to decrease the influence of school officials and employees in all future relationships.

Using ethical means. — The aim should be to win the election, but to win it by ethical means. A victory won by "fooling the people" is sure to be a Pyrrhic victory. A desirable end does not justify the use of vicious means for reaching it.

Avoiding making enemies. — Although it is difficult to accomplish, the aim should be to make as few enemies as possible and as many friends as possible. After the cam-

paign enemies must be lived with the same as friends. An old couplet says:

> He who has a thousand friends has not a friend to spare;
> But he who has one enemy shall find him everywhere.

Participation of school personnel. — Whenever possible, persons not connected with the personnel of the school should be chiefly or wholly responsible for conducting the campaign. This recommendation is made both for the employed personnel and for the pupil personnel. In the campaign the superintendent should be a Disraeli rather than a king.

Financing the campaign. — It is not good taste, and in most states it is not legal, to use public funds for the purpose of promoting a campaign for more funds. In fact, no type of propaganda should be financed by public funds. Adequate private funds for the campaign may usually be secured from the parent-teacher associations or other community groups.

Time of election. — If the laws of the state will permit, it is best to conduct the campaign and to have the election during the time the schools are in session. Although the school is the most cherished public institution, it is nearer and dearer to the hearts of the people when it is in session. A successful campaign is difficult to conduct during the summer vacation.

Campaign organization. — A special campaign organization should be built up. Heading the organization should be an intelligent, dynamic, and diplomatic chairman. The chairman may be a school official or an outsider, but, other things being equal, it is more politic to have an outsider.

Having selected the chairman, the next step is to formulate committees for the planning and prosecution of the campaign. The members of these committees should be leading citizens of the community, and they should represent various vocations and other interests; for example, they

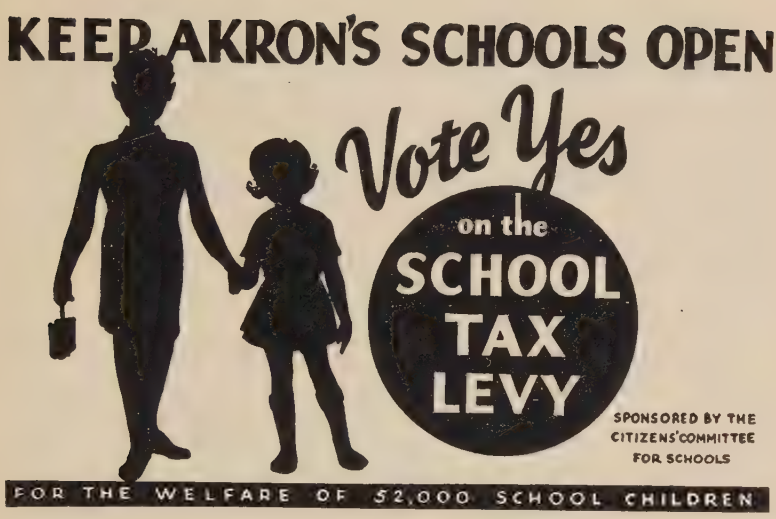
should represent such groups as the alumni of the local schools, labor groups, parent-teacher associations, religious organizations, American Legion, lodges, luncheon clubs, women's clubs, professional groups, social-service groups, and business organizations. The head committee should be a general executive committee.

Working under the direction of the executive committee, there should be various subcommittees. The chairmen of the subcommittees may appropriately be members of the executive committee. Among the subcommittees which should usually be organized are the following:

1. A *speakers' committee* to secure speakers and to arrange for talks at appropriate places.
2. A *publicity committee* to arrange for and to approve all publicity matter.

Types of publicity. — From the following list, suggestions may be secured and adapted to the needs of the local situation. More of the procedures suggested will usually need to be used in large school systems than in small ones.

1. Material in the newspapers, such as editorials, cartoons, interviews with prominent and influential citizens, stories of what other school systems have done and are doing, and announcements of endorsement of the campaign by community organizations and prominent citizens.
2. Advertising folders, handbills, and pamphlets. Samples of such are shown in Figs. 69 and 70.
3. Posters in windows, streetcars, buses, and other points of vantage.
4. Stickers for automobiles.
5. Street banners and floats.
6. Pictures and graphs in the motion-picture theaters.
7. Short speeches before all types of public gatherings.
8. School exhibits.
9. Radio talks.
10. Circular letters.
11. Personal interviews with voters and telephone calls to them.
12. Advance polling or straw ballots. These indicate the drift of sentiment and show the task before the campaign organization.



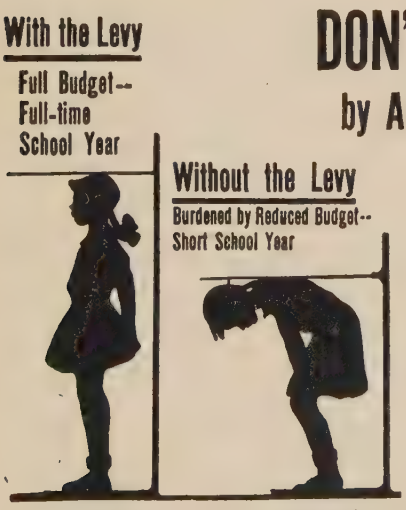


FIG. 69. — Front and Back Pages of a 4-page Folder, Used Recently in Akron, Ohio.

FACTS CONCERNING THE CONTINUATION
of
THE GEORGETOWN PUBLIC SCHOOL LEVY

Our schools receive a large share of their financial support from the State Foundation Fund. To receive this state support, it is necessary that this district furnish local support by a local tax levy.

This local support was included in an Additional Levy of 4.30 mills which was approved by the voters in 1934. This Additional Levy expires this fall.

The question of its continuation at the rate of 4.70 mills is to be decided in the election on Tuesday, November 2, 1937.

Go to the polls and VOTE on Tuesday, November 2.

VOTE for the School Levy.

VOTE to keep our schools open.

VOTE to continue local support so that we will not lose our share of state support.

VOTE

X	For the Levy
	Against the Levy

IF THE LEVY IS APPROVED

1. Our children will continue in school for the full nine-month term.

2. Our schools will continue to receive a substantial portion of their financial support from the State Foundation Fund.

3. The total school tax rate will still be lower than the average for exempted villages in Ohio.

4. The Georgetown community can continue to be proud of its schools and its record of loyal support.

IF THE LEVY IS NOT APPROVED

1. Our schools cannot continue to receive their share of the State School Foundation Fund.

2. Without this share of the State School Fund, our schools cannot operate for a full nine-month term.

3. If our schools close before the end of the term, it will not be possible to make grade promotions or to hold graduation exercises. If this happens, our children will lose an opportunity which can never be replaced.

VOTE FOR THE SCHOOL LEVY

TUESDAY, NOVEMBER 2, 1937

Board of Education
Georgetown Exempted Village Schools
Georgetown, Ohio

H. L. Cahall, *President*
Vern A. Miller, *Vice President*
Robert Lyon
John R. Simcox
B. Paul Goslin
Arthur S. Fite, *Clerk*

D. L. Pyle, *Superintendent*

Fig. 70. — A Leaflet Summarizing the Arguments for a School Levy, Used Recently in Georgetown, Ohio.

SCHOOL EXPLOITATION AND PROPAGANDA

Need for elimination. — Most school systems are constantly contacted by individuals and organizations that want to do such things as to collect money contributions from pupils and school employees, to distribute advertising among pupils and employees, and to have certain doctrines, beliefs, and theories taught the pupils. Some of these individuals represent interests which have only the good of the schools at heart, whereas others represent selfish interests which would exploit the schools if they were permitted to have their way. The recent tendency to promote various activities and projects through the schools should be checked and regulated lest it seriously interfere with the progress of the pupils in the regular work which the schools have been established to accomplish.

Usually it is easy to detect whether the work of the individual or of the organization, which desires co-operation from the schools, is altruistic or selfish; but the work of selfish interests is occasionally so well glossed over and camouflaged that it is difficult to detect its spurious nature. Teachers and school officials must therefore be ever on close guard and must always be ready to strike down the reptile of exploitation and vicious propaganda whenever it raises its venomous head. They should, of course, give a sympathetic ear to all agencies for the inculcation of freedom of speech, respect for truth, thrift, and other aspects of true Americanism. They should assiduously propagandize for the democratic way of life, and they should openly disdain totalitarianism and dictatorship. They should embrace altruism and fight selfishness.

Rules governing. — In most communities parents, pupils, teachers, principals, and other school employees would welcome any protection and guidance which the board of education could provide in its rules and regulations on these matters. Provisions in the rules and regulations should be based on the following principles:

1. Agents should be discouraged from coming to school buildings to take the time of pupils, principals, teachers, and other school employees. An exception should probably be made in the case of agents for textbook publishing firms and school-supply houses, since they perform a real service to the schools by keeping them informed on needed textbooks and supplies; but, the agents should not be permitted to enter classrooms and to take the time of teachers which belongs to pupils; there are still a few agents of this sort, though most agents know and use the best taste in these matters.

2. No contribution for any purpose should be taken up in the schools unless it has been specifically authorized by the board of education, nor should any advertising, unless it is closely related to the work of the schools, be permitted to be distributed, or posted, in or on school property. In giving its consent for contributions or advertisements for any purpose, the board should use careful discrimination and should make sure that only the most worthy projects are aided. In helping it to decide on the projects which are worthy it would do well to have the superintendent appoint a standing committee of teachers, principals, and other employees to advise them; it would be hoped that the members of this committee would always be fair and open-minded, but that they should at the same time have a streak of "hard-boiledness."

3. Lists of pupils should not be provided to commercial firms or to any other agency organized wholly or primarily for profit.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the differences between the methods and aims of school publicity and business publicity?

2. Could public money be legally and ethically spent to promote a campaign for an increased tax levy for the schools, or for a similar purpose? Explain.

3. Outline a publicity calendar for a given school for a year.

4. Outline a plan for a given school system by which the teachers and other school employees could be kept informed about school news.

5. Would you recommend that the new superintendent of schools pay a visit to the editors of the local papers? Why or why not?

6. Should any organizations be permitted to take up collections among pupils or to sell them anything? Explain.

7. Would you recommend that a notice be placed at the entrances of school buildings saying that agents were not permitted to canvass on school property? Why or why not?

8. Should school employees write endorsements of agents' wares? Explain.

9. What publicity media may the rural schools employ?

10. What can you say of the strength of the newspaper as an *ally*, or as an *opponent*, of the schools?

11. What types of information, if any, would school officials be justified in attempting to suppress? Why?

12. Account for the fact that the small-town newspaper is frequently opposed to student publications.

13. Is the high school annual worth the time and the expense entailed? Explain.

14. How may pupils, teachers, and janitors assist in securing desirable public relations? Should school employees talk "shop" with outsiders? Explain.

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Chapter XXX

EFFICIENCY IN OFFICE ADMINISTRATION

AMOUNT OF OFFICE WORK

The efficiency of a school system depends largely upon an expeditious and otherwise efficient performance of numerous office duties. Try as hard as he may to delegate the mechanical and the less important phases of the work of office administration to clerks or other employees, there are many important duties which the superintendent of schools cannot delegate but must perform himself. The kind of office functions and the frequency with which these functions are performed are determined largely, of course, by the size and the type of organization of the school system. Every superintendent, however, whether the school system over which he has charge be large or small, must spend a large amount of time on such matters as reading and replying to letters and other communications, using the telephone, interviewing office visitors, attending committee meetings, examining reports of his co-workers, and making reports to his board of education and to other officials. If his time is to be economized, and if the office work is to be efficiently performed, the superintendent must apply efficiency principles to the management of his office. He should appraise from time to time the efficiency with which each part of his office work is conducted, and on the basis of this appraisal he should make changes where they are needed. He should appraise especially in order that he may secure as much time as possible for classroom visitation and for thinking and planning on school problems. He should not permit himself to become buried by office detail.

OFFICE SPACE AND EQUIPMENT

Office space. — For economy of space, time, and effort, all general administrative offices of a school system should be located in the same building, and for the same reasons this building should be centrally located with reference to the school district. Small school systems usually house their administrative offices in one of the school buildings. County school offices are usually located in the county courthouse.

Many of the large school systems have erected buildings specially designed to house all general administrative offices, the supplies department, the maintenance department, and the motor vehicles of the district. Other large systems have rehabilitated an abandoned school building to make it serve these purposes. Still other large systems rent space for their general administrative offices.

Office equipment. — The equipment with which an employee is provided largely determines the quality, the quantity, and the cost of the work accomplished. These facilities have much to do with the mental and the physical condition of the employee, and that condition is reflected in the employee's output and in his *esprit de corps*. In every school system, therefore, considerable attention should be given to the selection of the office furniture and equipment, to the proper placing of it, to keeping it up-to-date, to keeping it in repair, and to seeing that it is carefully and economically used. The kind and the amount of office furniture and equipment which should be selected will be determined, of course, by the kind and the amount of work to be performed, by the amount of money which can be devoted to these items, and by the speed with which the office work must be performed. Obviously the office of a small school system will not need so much, nor the same kind of furniture and equipment, as the office of a large school system.

The superintendent should keep informed on the most modern types of office furniture and equipment. Improvements are being constantly made in such facilities. An

office which was well equipped a few years ago is likely to be archaically equipped today unless new equipment has been added to it. The superintendent can keep informed on these matters by taking such steps as the following: visiting modern offices in other school systems; attending the school furniture and equipment exhibits usually arranged in connection with large educational conventions, particularly in connection with the annual meetings of the American Association of School Administrators and of the National Education Association; consulting advertisements of school furniture and equipment; and interviewing salesmen of such items.

When several pieces of the same item of furniture or equipment are needed, there are advantages with respect to cost, repairs, replacement, and use in standardizing the items, that is, in purchasing the same make and grade. Standardization, however, should not be carried so far that service would be handicapped at any place or in any way.

It is impossible to suggest a *standard list* of furniture and equipment because, as was stated above, a list for any office must be determined by the amount and the nature of the work to be performed. The following list contains, however, the items of furniture and equipment usually found in the offices of the better school systems whether the systems be large or small: an office desk; an office chair; a telephone; bookcases; files; a desk lamp; a typewriter; a typewriter table or desk, and a chair; a plain table; several office chairs; a safe or a vault; a calculating machine; a postal scale; a duplicator; a clock; a place to deposit wraps and umbrellas; a calendar; a paper cutter; paper punches; a paper stapler; a wastebasket; and desk equipment, such as letter trays for incoming and outgoing mail, a buzzer, an inkstand, paper weights, a stamp and envelope moistener, scissors, rulers, a slide rule, a pencil sharpener, a memorandum pad, and rubber stamps and a stamp pad.

Other items of equipment, usually found only in the large

school systems where the need for labor-saving devices is greater and where more money is available for such items, are: a stencil-cutting machine; an addressing machine; a folding machine; a dictating machine; a bookkeeping machine; a stamp-affixing machine; an envelope-sealing machine; a check protector; a time stamp; and an envelope opener.

PROFESSIONAL LIBRARY AND REFERENCE WORKS

Professional library. — The merit of the superintendent of schools can be roughly determined by the merit of the professional library which he owns, has access to, and uses. The professional libraries of superintendents range from a few privately owned books and magazines stored in a bookcase in the superintendent's office to several thousand publicly owned books and magazines housed in a special room or rooms and under the charge of a special librarian. A few of the large school systems have organized a special library for the administrative staff and have placed it under the direction of a trained librarian; this arrangement is found especially where research staffs are employed. Most school systems, however, which have deemed it advisable to provide a professional library, have organized the library for all school employees and have made the materials which are of particular interest to the administrative staff a part of this library.

Office reference works. — There are several reference works which are needed so frequently that they should be found in the office of every superintendent. Many of these references, such as educational directories, appear annually and must be kept up-to-date if they are to be of the greatest service. Many of the references may be procured free of charge or at a small cost. The following is a list of the more useful reference works for the office of the superintendent: reports and bulletins of the local board of education (these should always be preserved for both their current and their

archival value); reports and bulletins of local municipal authorities; reports and bulletins of state officials, such as the state superintendent of public instruction, the state auditor, the state tax commission, and the state treasurer; reports and bulletins of various departments of the federal government, such as the Office of Education and the Bureau of the Census; reports and bulletins of the local state education association,

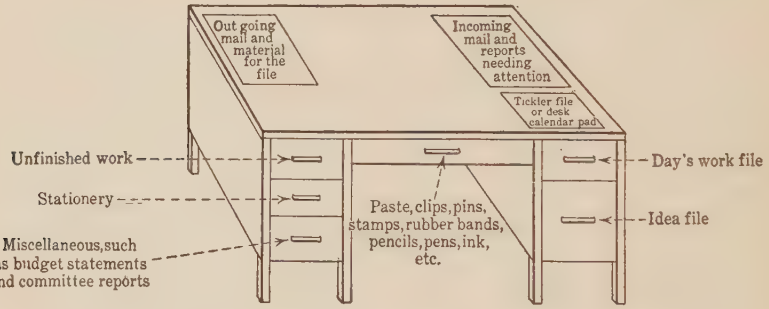


FIG. 71. — Sample Organization of the Office Desk of a Superintendent of Schools.

of the American Association of School Administrators, and of the National Education Association; reports and bulletins of other school systems; courses of study — local, state, and county; a local school directory, which should include a systematized list of all school employees and officers together with their residences and telephone numbers; a telephone directory; a city directory (if one is published); the *Educational Directory* of the United States Office of Education; the educational directory of the local state (published annually in most states by the state department of public instruction;) a dictionary; a thesaurus; a style book; *World Almanac;* catalogues of textbook publishers; catalogues of school-supply and school-equipment firms; catalogues of colleges and universities which the graduates of the local high schools attend; and the school code of the state.

In addition to the standard reference works, which are

usually issued in printed form as books, monographs, or bulletins, provision should be made for the systematic filing and keeping of various materials of a miscellaneous nature; suggestions on the filing of such materials will be made in a later section of this chapter. Among the more important of these miscellaneous materials are the following: the rules and regulations of the board of education; the minutes of the board of education; the minutes of the faculty; reports of individual members of the local school personnel; reports of committees; a chart showing administrative relationships in the local school organization; correspondence; the financial accounts of the school system; data regarding the pupils, school employees, and school buildings; a calendar of events of the school year; scrapbooks of school publicity and similar material; and maps of the local school district showing such matters as district boundaries, the location of each building, and the residences of the pupils.

THE CLERK AND CLERICAL SERVICE

Importance of the clerk. — It is a penny-wise policy for boards of education to employ teachers, supervisors, and administrators at high salaries, then require or permit them to spend their time and energy in performing tasks which clerks could perform more cheaply and more efficiently. Many school officials receiving annual salaries of several thousand dollars spend a large portion of their time and energy on mechanical duties and petty details which could be handled more efficiently by clerks costing a few hundred dollars annually. Not always are boards of education to blame for the lack of provision for clerical service. Superintendents are frequently to blame, because many of them fail to make a request for clerical service; many others, although they have been provided with ample clerical service, have not learned how to use it: they do not know how to delegate functions; they interpret too literally the oft-quoted statement that "genius is infinite capacity for detail."

Every school system which has approximately fifteen teachers should make provision for clerical service for the superintendent's office. In most school systems having that number of teachers there is enough clerical work to occupy the full time of one person. In smaller school systems arrangements should be made for part-time clerical service; this may be secured on a paid basis or as a part of the practical experience of advanced students in the commercial department of the high school. To secure a full-time employee small school systems will often be able to combine certain positions such as secretary to the superintendent, clerk of the board of education, commercial teacher, and school librarian. Full-time employees are usually preferable to part-time ones.

The following is a list of some of the chief ways in which a clerk or secretary can assist the superintendent: taking and transcribing dictation, and copying matter on the typewriter; mimeographing; filing correspondence and other materials; keeping financial records; making out pay rolls, checks, and vouchers; writing purchase orders and requisitions; keeping inventories of equipment, books, and supplies; looking after the bookkeeping for internal funds; making appointments for the superintendent and reminding him to keep them; meeting callers; answering the telephone; sending and receiving telegrams; answering correspondence for the superintendent; making out contracts for teachers and for other school employees; selling textbooks and supplies to pupils; issuing supplies to teachers and keeping a record of same; recording the minutes of school board meetings, and of faculty meetings; recording memoranda of conferences of the superintendent; opening and distributing the mail; writing out certificates of experience for teachers; posting the mail; keeping the office in order; receiving and sending parcel post, express, and freight; receiving notes from, and making notes for, the attendance officer, the school nurse, and other employees; posting school announcements; making out transcripts of credits for pupils; acting as notary public for the

school system; filling out reports and questionnaires; tabulating and summarizing the census, attendance, and enrollment records; giving assistance in preparing the school budget and in purchasing supplies; filling out employment certificates for pupils; arranging for substitute teachers; and securing reference materials, such as catalogues and directories, and properly filing them.

Although the need for clerical service is greatest in the superintendent's office, all other school offices frequently need such service; in fact, teachers occasionally need it. In small school systems it will often be practicable to employ one clerk for the work of the superintendent and for that of the high school principal and all teachers. In large school systems, which have large schools and other large divisions, a clerk or clerks should be assigned to each of those divisions.

Selection of the clerk. — Preceding paragraphs have shown the importance of the superintendent's clerk and have implied the necessity of high qualifications for this employee. Needless to say, the clerk should be selected with care and discrimination, because clerks differ widely in ability, and all graduates of commercial or secretarial courses do not make efficient clerks. The same circumspection used today in selecting teachers, principals, and supervisors should be used in selecting clerks.

It is a good plan to test the efficiency of the clerk before he or she is employed. Many superintendents have found it worth while and practicable to require the prospective clerk to take one of the standardized clerical tests, several of which are now on the market. In the larger cities school clerks often come under civil service regulations, and of course such regulations must be followed by school officials.

MEETING OFFICE CALLERS

Number and kind of callers. — At the office of the superintendent, even in the small school system, hundreds of persons call annually. These visitors have multifarious and

widely diverse missions; many more of them, however, wish to get than to give. Represented among the visitors are local school employees, candidates for positions, irate as well as sweet-tempered parents, pupils, agents of book publishers and school-supply firms, and protagonists of various hobbies and isms. Some of the callers have important business to transact with the superintendent, whereas others desire merely to visit or to pay a social call; some are honest, altruistic, and have only the best interests of the schools at heart, whereas others are dishonest and selfish; some are reasonable in their requests or suggestions, and others are unreasonable; some are intelligent, and others are ignorant; some know that the superintendent of schools is a busy person and consequently respect his time, whereas others are conscious and willing parasites of his time.

In these interviews or conferences the superintendent must make numerous decisions which will affect the schools. In making these decisions his judgment must usually be swift, and so far as is humanly possible, it must be accurate. In making a decision involving the schools his guiding principle should be: *Will this be good for the schools, and particularly, will it advance the interests of the pupils?* In answering this question there can be no compromise between right and wrong, and few people of the community will expect there to be a compromise. To give an efficient school administration is always the best politics.

Manner of meeting callers. — When they have been dealt with courteously and honestly, most persons who have interviewed the superintendent will hold no ill will toward him even though his decisions have been contrary to their desires. Courtesy, kindness, and square dealing are appreciated by all intelligent and honest people, and are always expected of the superintendent. On the other hand, such traits as rudeness, "double dealing," and "passing the buck" are despised by all ethical and cultured people. Whatever else the superintendent may be he should first of all be a

gentleman in the fullest sense of the word. Let him emulate William Pitt, the great commoner of England, of whom it has been said that no one ever called at his office without leaving with greater respect for, and confidence in, him.

Whether in industry or in public affairs the success of an executive is judged largely by the impression he makes upon the people with whom he comes in contact; in public affairs this is particularly true. For getting along in public affairs, social intelligence, or the art of peoples, is a *sine qua non*. If they fail to maintain the confidence and the good will of their co-workers and of the general public, public employees can never accomplish all that they might, and they are certain to be separated from their positions. On the other hand, when there is confidence and good will, long tenure and great accomplishment are possible.

The discussion thus far has emphasized the necessity of dealing with office visitors courteously and fairly. In addition, provision must be made for dealing with them expeditiously, or at least in a businesslike manner. Of course, if visitors are dealt with *too expeditiously*, there is danger that they will not be treated courteously. Unless system is provided, there is danger that too much time will be spent on interviews, especially with certain individuals who lack "terminal facilities." Herewith suggestions are made for the expeditious, though courteous, consultation of office visitors:

1. So far as possible, persons having business to transact with the superintendent should be requested to call at specified hours of the day. In accordance with this policy, the superintendent should set special office hours and, once having set them, should try to keep them. The latchstring of the superintendent's office should always be out, but for most callers it should be out only during certain hours of the day. The superintendent needs time for reflection, for planning, for school visitation, and for the transaction of other business; he will not have, or be able to use advantageously, this time if he is interrupted.

2. The visitors' entrance to the superintendent's office should be from the clerk's office, or from the public reception room. When callers arrive, the clerk should ascertain their names and the general nature of

the business on which they wish to interview the superintendent. Whenever she, or some other school employee, can save the superintendent an interview, she should do so. When visitors must wait, they should be told approximately *how long* they will have to wait; during the waiting period, the clerk should seat the visitors and try to make them comfortable. Because of her meeting of hundreds or thousands of school visitors every year, no school employee has a larger opportunity for creating good public relations than the school clerk.

3. "Long-winded" visitors can often be given the hint that other people are waiting, if the superintendent's clerk will interrupt the conference to say, "Pardon me, but Mr. Jones would like to know how long it will be until he may have a conference." If this hint is not sufficient, the superintendent can politely say he is sorry that several people are waiting to interview him and he will therefore have to interview his present caller at greater length some other time. Visitors are easily irritated by being kept waiting too long, and they are particularly irritated when they are kept waiting for several minutes or hours and are then told that the superintendent "will be unable to interview them today."

HANDLING CORRESPONDENCE

Suggestions for handling. — To the office of the superintendent of schools hundreds of letters and other communications come annually, and many of these communications demand replies. In addition, the superintendent sends hundreds of letters and other communications on his own initiative. Although he may delegate all duties possible connected therewith and although he may effect all economies in time possible, the superintendent must still devote much time to correspondence. The manner in which this correspondence is conducted has a direct bearing upon public relations and upon the general efficiency of the school system. Herewith are recorded a few suggestions looking toward an efficient handling of the superintendent's correspondence:

1. All correspondence should be cared for promptly. One of the first things which the superintendent should do each day is to reply to all communications which have come in that day.

2. Every communication should meet high standards with respect to content, neatness, mechanical make-up, and English composition. Every communication should be clear, accurate, concise, complete, and

courteous. A communication which does not measure up to these standards is likely to bring adverse criticism upon the superintendent.

3. All details concerning correspondence which can be delegated to the clerical force should be. Among such details which can be feasibly delegated are: opening, classifying, and distributing the mail; taking and transcribing dictation; securing information needed in dictating replies to letters; filing; collecting, folding, enclosing, sealing, and stamping letters; and seeing that the mail is posted. All communications which can be answered as well, or better, by assistant superintendents or by other school employees should be directed to such employees by the person who is responsible for sorting or classifying the mail.

4. Every communication should be preserved and properly filed. A carbon copy of the reply to a communication should be clipped to, and filed with, the communication.

5. The letterhead and envelope should be attractive and dignified. Most superintendents consider it better taste to omit their "academic millinery," that is, their college or university degrees after their name on the letterhead; thus, not John Doe, A.B., A.M., Superintendent of Schools, but John Doe, Superintendent of Schools.

USE OF THE TELEPHONE

Telephone equipment. — It is almost trite to say that a telephone is an indispensable item of equipment for the superintendent's office. Because of its greater convenience, a desk phone is recommended rather than a wall phone. When the superintendent has a clerk or secretary, and this is always to be hoped, the main phone should be in her office so that all incoming calls will first be answered by her. The superintendent's phone should be a desk-extension one connecting with the main one in the clerk's office. In such an arrangement, the clerk merely rings the superintendent's buzzer when the superintendent is wanted on the phone.

Each of the other chief administrative offices and every school building should be provided with a telephone. In school systems which have several administrative offices that require telephone facilities, it will be found more economical to install a telephone switchboard; the switchboard may be operated by someone who performs this duty alone or performs it in connection with other work such as serving as

information clerk and typist. Many school systems provide a telephone for each classroom of every building; these inter-classroom telephones are usually operated from a switch-board in the principal's office. Since suggestions on other possible economies in telephones were made in Chapter XVI, they need not be repeated here.

In school systems in which the pupils use the telephone in the school office, attempt should be made to secure the

TELEPHONE MESSAGE

M_____
(Name of person wanted)
You were phoned by M_____
His or her message was_____
_____
_____
_____
The message was received by_____
At the following time: Month & day_____
Hr_____

FIG. 72. — A Suggestive Blank for Taking and Reporting a Telephone Message.

co-operation of parents and pupils in reducing such use to a minimum. Except in cases of emergency, pupils and teachers should be called to the telephone only at school intermissions. Figure 72 shows a blank that may be mimeographed or printed and used to give a telephone message to a pupil or school employee.

Courtesy in use of telephone. — Although this is not a treatise on etiquette, it seems necessary to speak briefly about telephone etiquette and courtesy, because many school employees are ignorant of, or forgetful about, these matters. For example, many persons do not know, or if they know they forget, that the correct way in which to start a telephone conversation is by announcing one's name. Rather than to introduce a conversation by saying "Hello," or "Hello, who is this?" it is better to say "This is Mr. Jones speaking."

One's manner of speaking mirrors one's personality and creates a favorable or an unfavorable impression; it is another aspect of public relations.

MESSENGER SERVICE

Purpose. — For supplementing the United States mail service and the telephone, many school systems, particularly those of the larger cities, provide special messenger service. Messenger service is seldom provided, or needed, in the smaller school systems. Such service is provided to deliver pay rolls, inter-school communications, and small packages of supplies or equipment. In the larger school systems such service is often found to be cheaper and more expeditious than the United States mail service.

Standards. — When messenger service is provided, it should meet certain standards. In the first place, a schedule showing approximately the hour when the messenger will arrive at each school should be provided; after the schedule has been placed in operation it should be adhered to as closely as possible. In the second place, provision should be made by each school for getting all communications and materials to the proper employee as soon as possible; a good procedure for this purpose is to have a mailbox for each employee, in the principal's office, which each employee should consult once or twice a day.

FILING AND FILING SYSTEMS

Importance of proper filing. — Filing is the systematic putting away of letters, papers, reports, clippings, pamphlets, and other materials so that if they are needed for reference at any time they will be available at a moment's notice. The *putting away* of the materials is, of course, simple — the old-fashioned nail or wire spindle file or an ordinary box will suffice for that — but the test of the efficiency of the filing system is how quickly the system permits the *finding* of the needed letter, purchase order, newspaper clipping,

school-supply catalogue, or what not; the nail or wire spindle file or other primitive equipment does not enable the filing system to meet this test.

Without a good filing system, and it properly kept, the executive or his clerk will often have to spend an inordinate

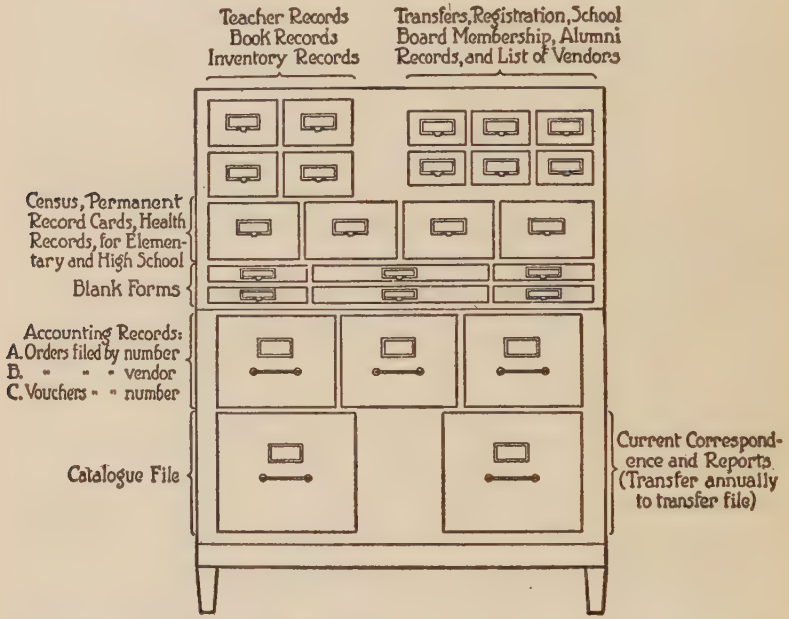
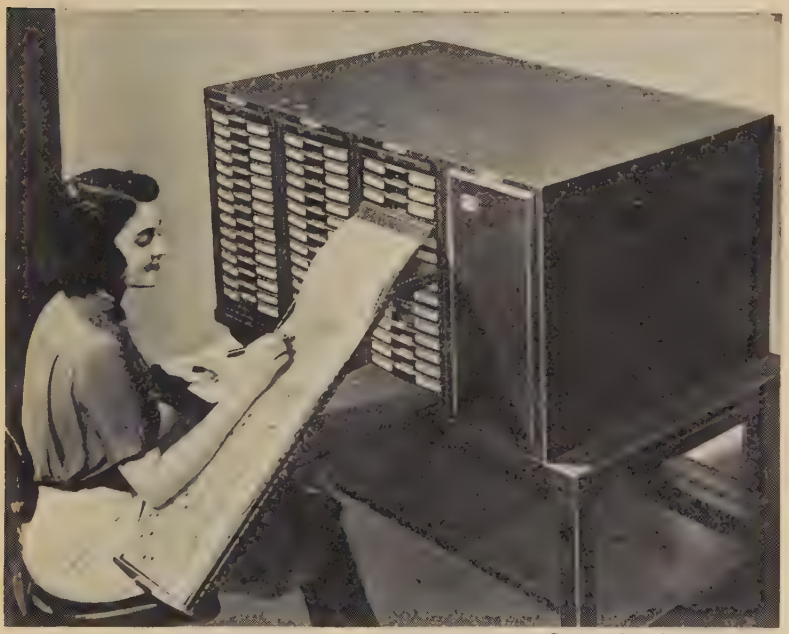


FIG. 73. — Filing Arrangement for a Small School System. (From Engelhardt and Engelhardt, *Public School Business Administration*, p. 199.)

amount of time in looking through the various drawers and cubbyholes of the office for a certain item of information wanted. Only a few seconds are required to put away a letter or other material, but an hour or more may be required to find it, unless an efficient filing system is maintained. The larger the school system the greater the need for an efficient filing system. It is difficult, however, to conceive of a school office whose business is so small that the filing problem can be entirely neglected.

Filing equipment. — The chief types of filing equipment which are available for school use today are:[1]

1. The *box file*, which consists of a wood or a heavy pasteboard box containing an index of the letters of the alphabet on manila sheets fastened to one side of the box. This is probably the simplest and the cheapest type of filing equipment.



Courtesy of Remington Rand, Inc.

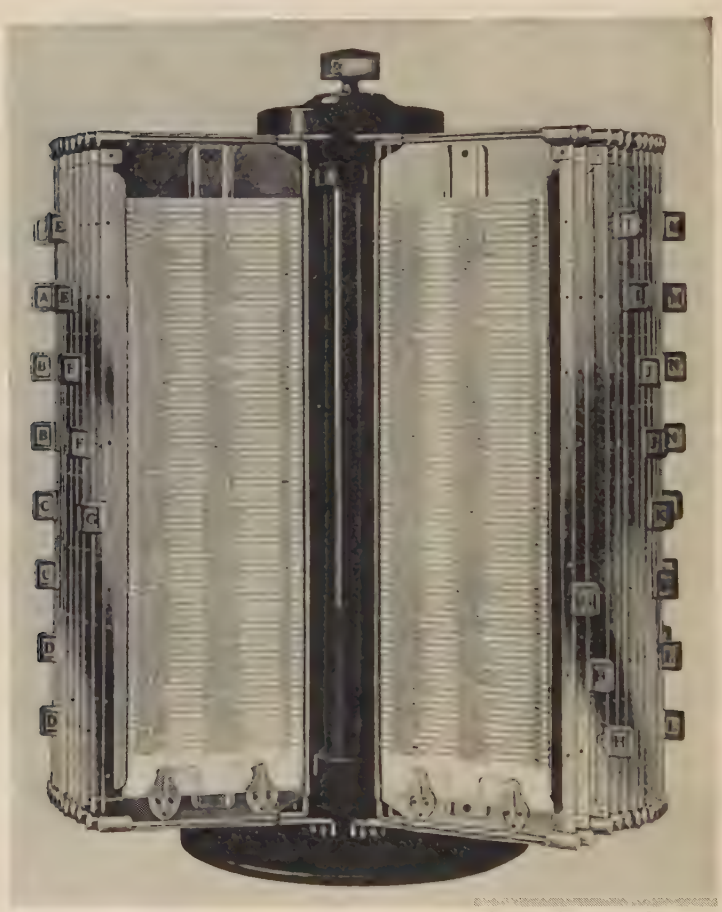
FIG. 74. — Cabinet Style of Visible File. (Visible files are particularly useful in large schools and school systems, especially for the filing of data which are constantly used.)

2. The *flat file*, which is essentially the same as the box file, except that a drawer is used and the materials are filed flat. Blue prints, drawings, and plans of school buildings, and similar materials, may be usually filed best in flat files.

3. The *vertical file*, which is used much more widely than any other type of filing equipment. The vertical file is admirably adapted to the

[1] Catalogues describing this equipment are issued by various school-supply and school-equipment firms, and since these catalogues are readily available, only a brief description of each item of equipment is given here.

filing of correspondence, reports, catalogues, and similar materials. Figures 76 and 77 are illustrations of vertical files.



Courtesy of Remington Rand, Inc.

FIG. 75. — Rotary Type of Visible File.

4. The *visible file*, which is particularly useful for information that is used constantly. The cabinet and the rotary types of visible files are illustrated in Figs. 74 and 75.

5. *Card indexes* for pupils' records, teachers' records, and similar purposes. Such indexes are illustrated in the upper part of Fig. 73.

6. *Binders* for financial-accounting records and similar purposes.

The type and the amount of filing equipment which should be provided will be determined by the size of the school system and by other local needs. For the office of a small school system a filing cabinet such as is illustrated in Fig. 73, will usually suffice. It will be noted that the cabinet illustrated in this figure provides space for the standard sizes of cards and papers, such as $3'' \times 5''$, $4'' \times 6''$, $5'' \times 8''$, $7'' \times 9\frac{1}{2}''$, and $8\frac{1}{2}'' \times 11''$. Wherever possible, all cards, letterheads, school forms, and other stationery should be of the sizes just mentioned so that they can readily be inserted in the standard files. Most of the larger school systems find it advisable to purchase their files in single units instead of in cabinets so that these units may be added to as needed.

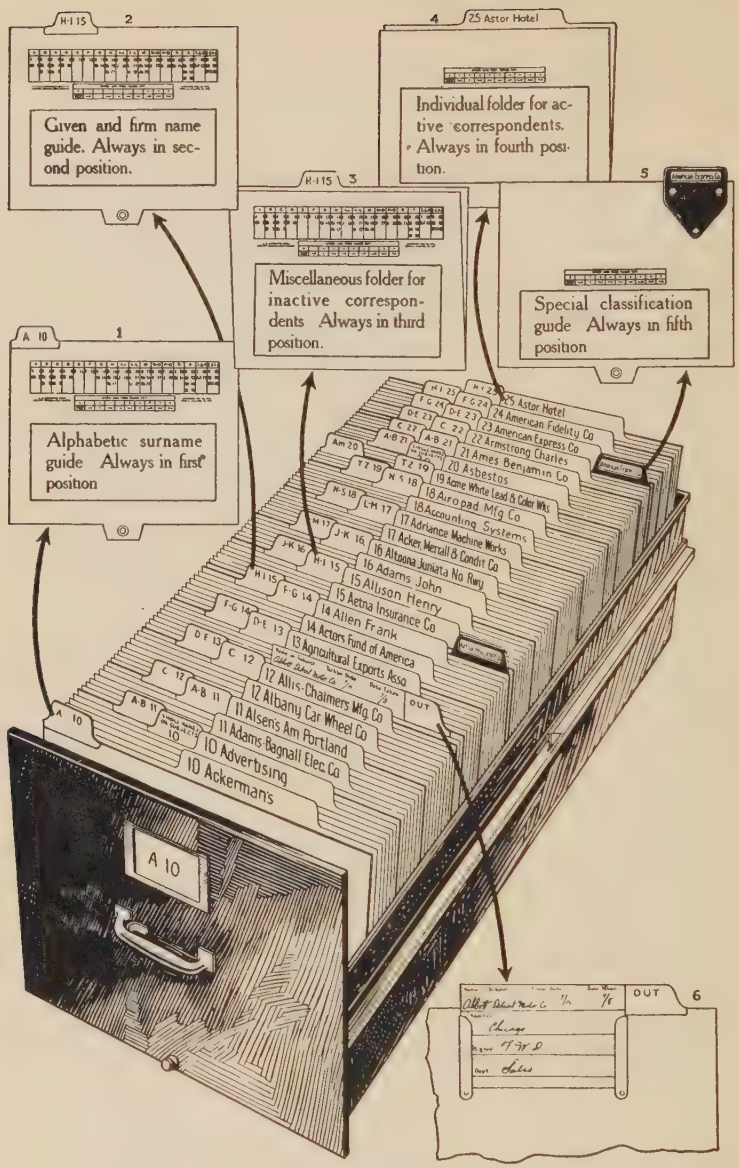
Methods of filing. — In the first paragraph of this section it was remarked that the purpose of filing materials is to have the materials arranged systematically in a safe place so that when they are wanted they may be quickly found. If this purpose is kept in mind, the organization of a filing system, and the keeping of it up-to-date, become relatively simple. The four following methods of filing are used in various offices:

1. The *alphabetical system*, in which all correspondence and other materials are filed by writer's name or by subject according to alphabetic arrangement. This is the system almost always used in school offices. Figure 76 shows a file organized according to the alphabetic system.

2. The *geographical system*, in which all materials are filed according to states, cities, and towns. In this system all materials are first classified by states, then by cities and towns, and lastly they are alphabetized by writers' names or by subjects. This system is seldom used in school offices.

3. The *numerical system*, in which all materials are filed by consecutive numbers. This system necessitates the use of an alphabetic card index or chart which tells in which numbered folders any particular material will be found. This system is infrequently used in school offices.

4. The *subject system*, in which all materials pertaining to a certain subject are filed together. This system is found very practicable in most school offices for the filing of certain materials which are frequently used. All materials need not, of course, be filed according to the system. Figure 77 shows a file organized according to the subject system.



Courtesy of Remington Rand, Inc.

FIG. 76. — Alphabetic Index (subdivided). (Notice the individual folders in which materials are placed and the alphabetic guides; notice also the "out" card.)

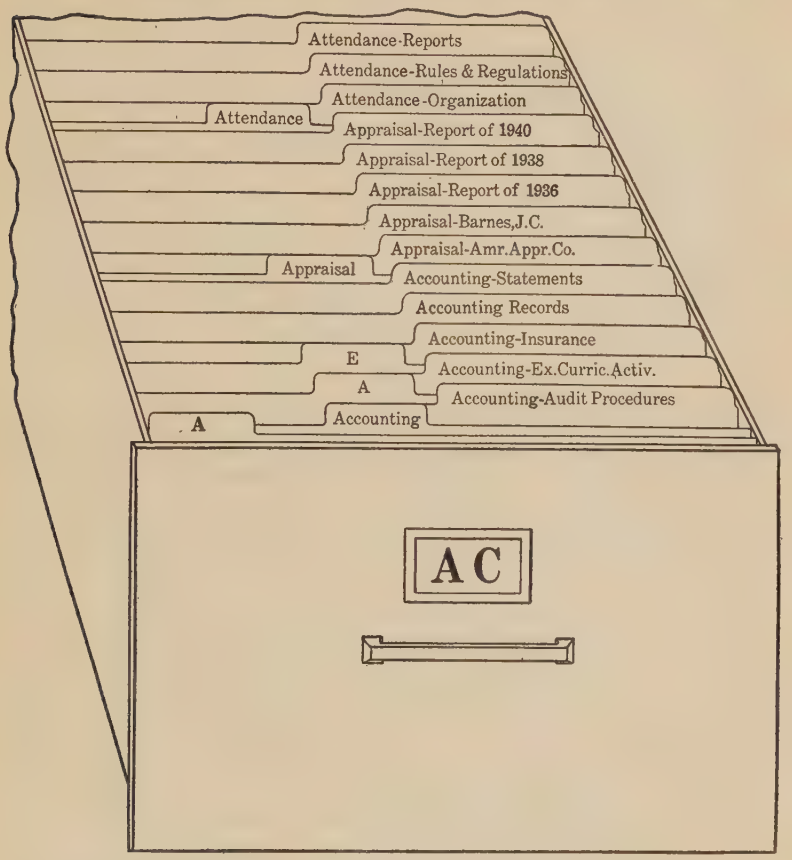


Fig. 77. — A File Organized According to the Subject System. (Adapted from Engelhardt and Engelhardt, *Public School Business Administration*, p. 202.)

Transfer of materials. — To secure economy of labor and of filing space, it is advisable to transfer periodically certain materials from the *active* files to the *inactive*, or storage, files. If correspondence, school-supply catalogues, curriculum materials, school-accounting records, and similar materials are permitted to remain in the active files after they have grown out-of-date or when they are seldom used, they take up valuable filing space and interfere with the economical

use of materials which are up-to-date and frequently used.

The frequency of making the transfer will depend, of course, upon the size of the school system, the amount of available filing space, and similar factors. The close of the school year is usually the most convenient time for the transfer.

The materials to be transferred will be determined by the type of material. For example, correspondence and other materials which have only current use should be destroyed; correspondence and materials, however, which may be used at some future time, but are infrequently used at present, should be transferred; materials which are frequently used, or are of a documentary nature, should be left in the active files. Determining what is valuable material and what is *not* valuable cannot be left entirely to the executive's clerk; the executive should maintain close supervision over the transfer operation lest valuable material be destroyed or misplaced. All materials in the transfer or storage files need not be kept year after year. In order that these files may not become cluttered with worthless materials and valuable space occupied by them, it is a good plan to go through the transfer files every year or two and destroy all worthless materials. Although there is no set rule regarding the length of time during which materials should be kept, there are only a few materials that need be kept longer than five years.

The transfer files need not be of as good construction as the active files. Wood or corrugated boxes may be used, or a cheaper type of steel file than the active files. The folders [1] and their contents are transferred to these files, and are placed in the same alphabetical, geographical, subject, or numerical order in which they have appeared in the active files. The guides are usually not transferred because they are too expensive to be placed in the inactive files; furthermore, omitting them from the transfer files saves space.

Borrowing material from the files. — When any material is borrowed from the files by any person other than the clerk

[1] For an illustration of folders and guides, see Fig. 76.

or the executive in charge of the office, a record should be made of what was borrowed, when it was borrowed, and who borrowed it. The clerk should be responsible for keeping this record and for taking any materials from the files and for returning them. In the lower right-hand corner of Fig. 76, is shown a device which may be conveniently used for making a record of any material borrowed from a file.

Likewise, when a book or other article is borrowed from the office, a record should be made of the transaction. One of the writer's university professors used to remark that "the secret of keeping a book is not to lend it"; this might be a good axiom to keep in mind in lending books to certain persons. A good friend of the writer's recently lent him a book, but before handing him the book he wrote before his name (the owner's name) on the fly-leaf page the words "Stolen from"; the writer did not forget to return *that* book.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Having set regular office hours, should the superintendent make himself available for interviews at other hours during the day?

2. Would you advise that the superintendent budget his time each day? Why or why not?

3. Do you feel that the typical school administrator devotes too much time to office details? Explain. By what means may the time devoted to this work be decreased?

4. Suggest a plan whereby office callers may be tactfully dismissed as soon as their business has been transacted.

5. In a large school system should the office of the superintendent be in one of the school buildings or in a separate administration building? Explain.

6. List the office equipment which a superintendent in a given school system should have.

7. What steps should the superintendent take to keep his professional library up-to-date?

8. How large should the school system be before the superintendent should have a full-time office clerk? Explain. What suggestions can you make looking toward providing clerical service in small school systems? What provision, if any, should be made for clerical service for teachers?

As superintendent of schools in a system having a thousand pupils, what arguments for a superintendent's clerk would you present to your board of education?

9. Outline a plan for getting mail, notices, salary checks, and announcements distributed from the central office to teachers and other employees.

10. Some superintendents file in a loose-leaf binder, or in a similarly good way, a copy of each notice given to school employees. What advantages do you see in this plan?

11. Do you agree with the recommendation that classroom teachers should be provided with filing equipment? Explain.

12. Would it be practicable to have each classroom provided with a telephone? Explain.

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[1] From a perusal of this list of references, the reader will observe the paucity of references which bear directly upon school offices: however, the many excellent references on business and industrial offices may be used as a substitute.

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